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ABSTRACT

Drawn from the proceedings of a conference focusing on ways to improve the teaching of college level learning skills, the articles in this collection deal with a variety of topics. Among the topics discussed in the 37 articles are the following: (1) a systems approach to planning, implementing, and evaluating peer counseling programs; (2) modifying the language experience approach for use with adult learners; (3) the uses of videotape recordings in a learning skills center; (4) using linguistics in the adult basic education reading program; (5) a learning center approach to English as a second language instruction; (6) subject area tutoring; (7) suggestopedia, a teaching strategy for the severely disabled reader; (8) comprehension and minority students; (9) teaching concept development through a multicultural literary perspective; (10) instruction in study skills through systematic stimulation of academic experiences; (11) black dialects; (12) integrating adjunct reading and study skills classes with content area classes; (13) self-help packets; (14) modifying inner speech as a cognitive behavior modification technique for learning disabled students; and (15) the use of cloze procedure in the classroom. (FL)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE NINTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE

VOLUME IX

THE SPIRIT OF '76: REVOLUTIONIZING COLLEGE LEARNING SKILLS

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PREFACE

The articles in this issue of the *Proceedings* appear to be on disparate topics, from setting goals, tutoring, organizing, teaching, evaluating, etc., but they are all related to the conference theme "The Spirit of '76: Revolutionizing College Learning Skills." The keynote address by Ms. Pat Heard from the University of Texas at Austin establishes the theme beautifully. In it, she speaks for all Western College Reading Association members about the past, present, and future of the association; after reading the article, the interested public should certainly feel grateful to the outstanding leadership and high achievements that the Association has produced. Few organizations have met with such success.

Again this year, the editorial staff included all of the articles submitted before the deadline. Whether the readers will agree or not with the viewpoints expressed, they will doubtless be stimulated and/or motivated to reflect upon the problems and solutions presented. To be sure, the ideas suited the author's modus operandi perhaps uniquely in several instances, but conceivably they can be adjusted to any practitioner's with only slight modifications.

At this time, the editor wishes to express his sincerest appreciation to the members for their critical evaluations of the *Proceedings*; the staff has made every attempt in editing the papers fairly and with sensitivity to the original ideas. Many unsolicited comments, too, have been shared with the editor regarding the valuable insights found in earlier volumes. It is in the same spirit that this ninth edition is presented.

Roy Sugimoto

TENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
DENVER: March 31 — April 1-2, 1977

CONTENTS

1 **Keynote Address:** College Learning Specialists: A Profession Coming of Age, by Patricia Heard, *University of Texas at Austin*

10 A Systems Approach to Planning, Implementing, and Evaluating Peer Counseling Programs, by Nancy Elizabeth Adams and Brenda Joyce Stevenson, *Stanford University*

23 Setting Goals and Evaluating Tutorial Programs, by J. Richard Arndt, *California State University, Fresno*

28 Experiencing A Tutor Training Workshop, by Susan Brown, *New Mexico State University, Las Cruces*

32 A Clinical Approach to Reading in the Community Colleges, by Rhoda L. Casey, *Compton Community College*

37 Modifying the Language Experience Approach for Adult Learners, by Carol N. Dixon, *University of California, Santa Barbara*

42 Survival in the University. Teaching Higher Order Learning Skills, by Jeanette L. Driskell, *University of Idaho*

46 Uses of Video-Tape Recordings in a Learning Skills Center, by Nita M. Earnhart, *University of California, Los Angeles*

53 The Study Table and Panic Clinic, by Gwyn Enright, *California State University, Northridge*

59 An Information Retrieval System for Learning Skills Materials, by Ann B. Faulkner, *Mountain View College*

66 The Description and Evaluation of a Learning Skills Workshop, by George M. Ferrell and Jann F. Segal, *California State University, Northridge*

72 Motivating Activities for Remedial College Reading, by Minnette E. Gersh, *Hollywood, California*

77 Training Para-Professionals to Deliver Test Anxiety Desensitization, by Ernest B. Gourdine, *University of California, Davis*

82 Using Linguistics in the Adult Basic Education Reading Program, by Deborah Osen Hancock, *California State University, Fullerton*

88 A Learning Center Approach to ESL, by R. Daniel Houston, *El Camino College*

94 Subject Area Tutoring: A Wild Card in the Learning Center, by David R. Hubin, *The University of Texas at Austin*

100 The Self-Concept Way to Reading, by Norma G. Inabinette and Ann Coil, *Santa Barbara, California*

107 Suggestopedia: A Teaching Strategy for the Severely Disabled Reader, by Bobby M. James, *South Plains College, Texas*

114 A System of Individualized Reading Diagnosis and Instruction on the Community College Level, by John D. Maloney, *Ohlone College*

120 Self Help Packets: Their Design and Evaluation, by Joan M. Matthews and Robert W. Mims, *The University of Texas at Austin*

126 Adult Basic Education: A Mandate for Teacher Training, by Ruth Graham May, *California State University, Fullerton*

132 Fifty Ways to Help Your Students, by Elinor M. Michel, *University of Idaho*

137 Native American Culture, by James Oakman, Sr.

142 Modifying Inner Speech: A Cognitive Behavior Modification Technique for Learning Disabled Students, by Carol Pfeffer, *University of California, Los Angeles*

148 Comprehension and Minority Students, by Jerry A. Rainwater, *Texas Tech University*

155 Teaching Concept Development Through a Multi-Cultural Literary Perspective, by D. Pauline Rindone and Yvonne Tixier y Vigil

160 The Metronome Spelling System, by Bernice Ross, *West Los Angeles College*, and Sallie Brown, *El Camino College*

165 Cloze in the Classroom, by Virginia Moore Shrauger, *Central Oregon Community College*

170 Instruction in Study Skills Through Systematic Stimulation of Academic Experiences, by Randall A. Silverston, *The University of Texas at Arlington*

174 Revolutionizing the Attitudes of Academia Through a Learning Skills Center, by karen G. Smith, Carol Clymer, and Robin D. Brabham, *New Mexico State University*

181 Another Look at Black Dialect, by Arlene Stevenson, *Pima Community College*

185 Accountability: An Outcome Evaluation of the Eastfield College Reading Program, by James A. Swindling, *Eastfield College*

193 Elements of Syntax in Teaching Spanish Readers Comprehension Skills in English As A Second Language, by Horst G. Taschow, *University of Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada*

199 Integrating Adjunct Reading and Study Classes with the Content Areas, by Barbara M. Tomlinson and Terry Green, *University of California at Riverside*

204 Revelations From Statewide College Reading Program Visitations, by Rose Wassman, *Portola Valley, California*

209 Time Makes Ancient Good Uncouth, by Robert T. Williams, *Colorado State University*, and Mitchell A. Kaman, *Larimer County Vocational Technical Center*

213 Templates for Vocabulary, by Leon E. Williamson, *New Mexico State University, Las Cruces*

PROCEEDINGS OF THE
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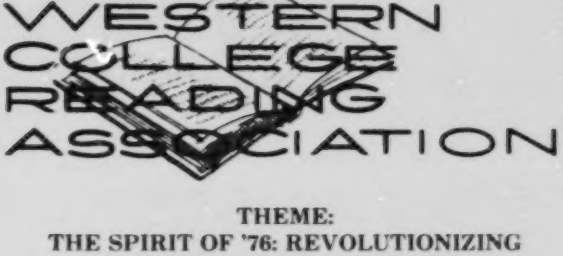

THEME:
THE SPIRIT OF '76: REVOLUTIONIZING COLLEGE LEARNING SKILLS

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KEYNOTE ADDRESS
COLLEGE LEARNING SPECIALISTS: A PROFESSION COMING OF AGE
(Spirit of '76: A Keynote from the Grassroots)

Patricia Heard
University of Texas at Austin

When I was asked a few months ago to give one of this year's conference keynote addresses, I was a little surprised — and hesitant. Because I agree with June Dempsey's recent *Newsletter* comments (2) about contributing to professional organizations rather than just belonging to them, I had at least planned to submit a paper this year. But, while I enjoy and even relish the exchange of ideas about programs and methodology at conferences such as this, I had a hunch that the word "keynote" implied something else. Various dictionaries revealed it to be "an address intended to present issues . . . a line of policy . . . set forth authoritatively . . . in a public speech." If nothing else, it also implies the rolling phrases of Frank Church and the dulcet reverberations of Everett Dirksen. I'm essentially a very pragmatic person; I'm not particularly great at turning the abstract, philosophical, flag-waving phrases which some expect in keynotes. I've always marveled at speech writers who poetically count and refer to years by the "score" instead of twenties.

No question about it, a keynote is indeed different. My next thought was, why me? My being here in this position today is not much different from the grassroots of WCRA — not only geographically (being from way back "east" in Texas), but organizationally as well. Even now, some of you Westerners may be wondering if a woman with a southern accent should deliver a speech at all! The only thing which probably separates me from the majority of you is my 16 years in this learning skills business — 16 years of evolutionary perspective in a relatively new field. (Perhaps, in more appropriate keynote language, I should say I have the professional hindsight of four-fifths of a score of years.) I entered this field when a reading teacher was someone who owned a stopwatch and could oil a cranky Controlled Reader.

However, imposing though a keynote sounds, I've decided there's something essentially liberating about it — simply because it is *not* held to the restrictions of a research paper or a program evaluation. Therefore, I intend to enjoy and interpret my charge this afternoon as the opportunity simply to say what I think . . . a chance to share what's on the mind of at least one grassroots WCRA member this spring. I'll use it as a chance to bounce my own ideas off you — and to stimulate your own inevitable refinements and objections.

Last December, I was asked to submit a title in accord with this year's conference theme. I also needed to choose a title way back then that would allow me to speak on whatever actually moved me now in April. Those of you presenting other papers here this week can probably empathize with that. First, I considered titling this, "A Revolutionary Keynote". That's vague enough, but I shuddered a bit at the possible implications and expectations of it. So, in accord with the democratic flavor of this bicentennial year conference, your program today reads "A Keynote from the Grassroots" — and it is obviously that. However, the topic which specifically intrigues me today might more appropriately be titled "College Learning Specialists: A Profession Coming of Age". In fact, equal rights and affirmative action not withstanding, I hereby invoke my right to change my mind . . . or at least to change my title.

APPLAUDING PAST GROWTH

I talked to various people while contemplating a theme for this keynote. One evening I had dinner with a coileague who asked, "Why don't you predict where college learning centers are going in the next 25-50 years?" That sounds appropriately keynotish, and a few years ago I might have attempted it. But for the moment, and though I may be getting nearsighted, I really believe that learning skills centers (or learning assistance centers or whatever you want to call them) have rapidly come of age. Perhaps it's the bicentennial year, I feel more inclined to applaud and evaluate the past than to predict the future today. Continuous growth and change are not always appropriate in the developmental cycles of a profession or institution. There must by interludes for reflection and integration. There must be time to assess the cumulative impact of change in order to give cohesion to the future. It's also OK just to stop and pat yourself on the back sometimes, too.

Gwen Enright's extensive literature search last year summarized the evolution of the college learning center concept from 1916 through 1974. (4) That historical survey began with a 1916 study skills booklet and then noted the following sequence of development: study skills groups; remedial and developmental reading groups; programs aimed at the combined affective and cognitive concerns of the "whole" student; multi-faceted communication skills courses; individualized, self-paced instruction utilizing all sorts of programmed instructional materials and technology; tutoring and other instructional supplements to academic subjects; and eventually, the com-

prehensive learning systems concepts integrating many of these functions. Enright, with Margaret Devirian and Guy Smith, also reported after a national survey of college learning centers that more than 85% of these centers have become operational only in the last decade and currently represent a tremendous diversity of programming functions. (3)

Indeed, sometimes I think that a schematic "time line" of learning center program development would resemble the suddenly precipitous incline of technological advances after the industrial revolution. On a hunch, I reviewed the tables of contents of the first three annual WCRA conference proceedings (1968, 1969, 1970). Predictably, of twenty-one titles in those first three yearbooks, nineteen were in the traditional areas of reading, comprehension, phonics, spelling, vocabulary, and reading tests. But not so for the annual proceedings of the most recent three conferences (1973, 1974, and 1975). Throughout those tables of contents are references to formerly tangential or completely extraneous topics — i.e., concern for handicapped students, minority students, foreign students, bi-lingual students, and mature, returning women; freshman orientation and graduate school exam preparation; general communication skills, writing skills, and active listening; sophisticated utilization of technological resources; peer tutoring in academic subjects and outreach services to content area faculty; final exam centers and test anxiety reduction; and various applications of behavior modification techniques, cognitive mapping, proxemics, body language, problem-solving, and even transactional analysis. A quick glance through your program for this year's conference will even further reinforce these same trends.

Not that any one of us is into all of these things — not that we ever should be. But among the programs and methodologies represented by all of you in this WCRA membership are an ample number of prototypes to keep us busy selecting, adapting, and rejecting for a long time to come. I'm especially pleased to read and hear that many are now into various versions of outreach programming to academic subject area classes and faculty. That was my own battle cry here at WCRA a few years ago.

The *Time* magazine report of the Stanford Learning Assistance Center was indeed a milestone. (5) It's a final achievement when a national news magazine reports that even Stanford students utilize a Learning Assistance Center. Actually, that also further confirms my long-standing belief that we fare better administratively and politically when our programs show relevance to all students on campus, not just to the disabled learner. Mike McHargue and his staff are certainly to be congratulated for the public relations coup of the year. In a larger sense, though, perhaps we are all to be congratulated.

In applauding the past, I'm not suggesting that all of us don't have many future goals for our own programs on our own campuses. I'm only saying that, collectively, we've come a long way, baby! Comprehensive learning assistance programming for college campuses is apparently an idea whose time has come. College administrators increasingly acknowledge learning

skills centers as integral parts of the educational process. Obviously, with achievement and acceptance, come obligation.

ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CHANGE

If, then, we have come of age, if the legitimacy of learning center concepts is no longer debated by other faculty and administors, then maybe we can stop spending the bulk of our energies to "prove" ourselves. We should devote some time instead to backing off for a look at the impact of this rapid evolution. It's my intention today to plead for an awareness of the changes taking place and an alertness to two possible problem areas which should be monitored, even if immediate solutions are not possible.

For those of us on the U.T.-Austin RASSL staff, this has been a year of major programmatical changes with all of the accompanying ambiguities and uncertainties. I also imagine that most of you here would perceive yourselves as having been involved in change the past few years — maybe responsible for it, perhaps victims of it. In the midst of my own initial qualms about the risks of pushing for some major changes, a colleague accidentally discovered and brought me a book which has been my administrative bible this year: John Morgan's *Managing Change*. (7) It's actually written by an industrial psychologist for managers coping with the organizational impact of technological changes, but much of it speaks directly to me. One particular part is relevant here — Morgan's observations about alternatives for handling change. He says that people can and do handle change in four ways: (1) sleep through it and fail to realize the full scope and speed of it, (2) say it's inevitable and that nothing should be done about it (the laissez-faire approach), (3) the hand-wringing approach of those who may attempt to stop the clock, and (4) the "let's do it approach" (trying to control change within the limits of your purview or jurisdiction). (7:11, 12)

In case you can't guess, that fourth option is the wisest. One thing is certain — this profession must intelligently control the explosion of roles increasingly demanded of it. If we don't, we risk developing the image of jack-of-all-trades, master of *none*! And so I'd like to direct your attention to what I feel are two potential problems to be closely monitored. In my opinion, both of these are issues in which WCRA members whould attempt to control change within their jurisdiction.

NEED FOR CONCEPTUAL LIMITS

The first of those two problem areas is the increasing need to establish rational limits for the conceptual framework of learning skills centers — what roles they can *and can't*, should *and shouldn't* play.

The word "learning", of course, is itself a problem. In some ways, it is still considered the domain of the experimental psychologist and the learning theorist. Surely many of you have also met resistance to the precise "Learning Center" title from other faculty who say the whole campus is a center of learning. And, indeed, there's more truth in that than we might want to deal

with at the moment. Yet, who can come up with a better word — something descriptive enough to connote an appropriate image to the public and to our colleagues in other fields? I received a phone call last fall from the National Academy of Engineering in Washington asking me to recommend appropriate resource people to represent comprehensive learning support services for disadvantaged students. When I referred in passing to the Western College *Reading* Association, the caller quickly interjected that this was much more than just a reading problem. But should WCRA ever become WCLA, I expect that learning theorists and researchers would clamor possessively.

How many hours have all of us spent playing around with (and sometimes agonizing over) program center titles and acronyms. I'm sure many of you could easily match my abecedarian stories, but I'm nonetheless inclined to share a few. When I first arrived at the U.T.-Austin Counseling Center in 1960, the "Reading Improvement Program" was a descriptive enough title for the then limited functions, but the R.I.P. initials seemed more appropriate resting in peace on cemetery tombstones. With the rapid advent of additional study skills programming and self-paced instructional alternatives, we soon became the "Reading and Study Skills Lab", better known as "RASSL". Campus sampling surveys have indicated that the RASSL acronym is now known to almost 90% of our 40,000 students, and we're periodically surprised at the extent to which it is known even off campus, out of state, and internationally. With that level of visibility established, we're extremely reluctant to make changes. Yet the words "reading and study skills lab" no longer begin to reflect the scope of our functions.

Perhaps the most irreverent assault on that RASSL acronym in recent years was made by another of my colleagues. As you might expect, he was our first transplant from a California program. Determined to stamp his own contributions on the organization as soon as possible, he arrived at the office one morning with a list of acronyms reflecting his new Texas heritage: LASSO (Learning and Study Skills Organization); and the Society for the Preservation of Undergraduate Reading Students (SPURS). Needless to say, we resisted that assault and are still RASSL, at least for the immediate future. However, we're now beginning to expand the descriptive title to "RASSL Learning Services" without referring to the origins of the RASSL acronym at all.

Titles and semantic games are one thing; declared roles and objectives are yet another. I was initially attracted to WCRA by the sheer intrigue of Gene Kersteins' "ombudsman" concept of a college learning center. (6) As a matter of fact, I recall that I sent him an innocent fan letter about it and promptly received a request for money and a membership application by return mail! However, at times the stated goals and objectives for learning centers are beginning to sound a bit pretentious — even megalomaniacal. Learning centers cannot and should not be perceived as the unit primarily responsible for the quality of students' total learning experiences on campus. That must be the pervasive and primary concern of all — and especially top-level

administrators and faculty. If a learning center's roles are interpreted too broadly, there's nothing left for the other educators on campus to do but tally up all the honor roll students who march out our doors.

With the initial battle for acceptance of the learning center concept mostly won, we must not now become too much to too many. We must beware of accepting all roles — of becoming a dumping ground for the educational values which others on campus may preach but not take the time to practice. We must now be cautious that, having funded a campus learning center, complacent administrators and faculty don't default to us their own responsibilities for the quality of campus learning. Learning centers should not be seen as token gestures toward educational excellence in isolation from all other campus components. The entire system must acknowledge that the mastery of effective approaches to learning will often outlast the mastery of content per se — and that learning is not just a cognitive experience, but very much an affective one as well. When pressed about the overall quality of education, it shouldn't become too easy for a dean or president to say, "Oh, we have a learning center that takes care of that." Learning centers can never be a cure-all or a cover for other weaknesses in the total educational system.

Of course, learning centers might come full circle and begin to grow into mini-colleges complete with credit instruction in academic subjects. One needs only a little imagination to conjure up this image from recent program surveys (3). I said earlier that other faculty sometimes object to the pretentiousness of the title "Learning Center" because they believe the whole campus is technically just that. Now the intriguing converse is this possiblity that the learning center might become a whole campus!

When and where do we stop and define limits? We all play the numbers games — scrupulously tallying and reporting the numbers of students in our ever-expanding programs and services. Yet I wonder if octopus-like growth and empire building is even advisable? Perhaps — *if* you're an octopus — or a Napoleon. But is it really a practical objective where something as potentially comprehensive as college learning is concerned?

If the learning center does come to fulfill only a role of a microcosmic showplace college in isolation, then we have failed. There must be a point where our function should not be our own continued expansion but to incite changed roles in others on campus. How many of you have had students say, "Gee, I wish other departments and teachers seemed to care about me as much as you do." That's when we need to wear our other hats — as watchdogs, catalysts, advocates, trend-setters — yes, even ombudsmen. Our ultimate concerns should be for the whole student on the whole campus. If we carefully define and intellilgently limit the direct roles and expectations of a college learning center, then there should come a time when we don't measure our efectiveness by the numbers who walk in our doors. Rather, we should also observe the numbers whose needs are served comprehensively in a concerted effort throughout all departments on campus.

Learning centers must, of necessity, be in accord with the philosophies, values, and objectives of the individual institutions they serve. There can

never be only one exact model for learning centers; institutions have personalities as complex and different as people do. But, even if there can be no perfect model, can't we devise some rough guidelines? Isn't this increasingly our obligation?

NEED TO DEFINE PROFESSIONAL IDENTITIES

The second of the two potential problem areas resulting from rapid change is intimately woven with the first. The obvious corollary of our need to define the scope of learning centers is our obligation to define the professional identities of those who staff them. Time was when a certified reading specialist was the epitome of a perfect reading/study skills center staff member. But the needs and roles of learning center staffs have now become so much broader.

Gretchen Crafts and Andrew Gibson last year reported the results of a survey indicating a gap perceived by college reading teachers between their graduate school preparation and their eventual job responsibilities. (1) With the multiple roles of learning centers these days, perhaps that's understandable. Crafts and Gibson concluded with a plea for more specific graduate school programs — not just to provide a learning center practicum experience, but to ensure diverse grounding in comprehensive theoretical foundations as well.

Let me play devil's advocate for a moment: maybe there shouldn't and can't be a "learning specialist" — maybe the expectations implied by that word are simply too comprehensive for anyone but a "superperson", a multidisciplinary genius with the insides of the bionic woman and the body of the six million dollar man . . . or picture the reverse image if it appeals to you more. Maybe there should only be one good management expert plus a varied staff from many other disciplines, fields, and professions. But what common threads distinguish them and determine their selection for learning center staffs? How should they be different from their colleagues?

I'm not entirely convinced that it takes a biologist to explain how to study biology but I'm thinking about it. I don't think it necessarily takes one to know how to become one, though it may be convenient. Comments from students in our groups which focus on studying in various content areas are often more positive about the general study skills learned than the content per se. I admit it might be best if a learning specialist were also a biologist— and vice versa. But there are not many such schizoids around. After a recent staff discussion about importing a "consultant" to come up with a science problem-solving guideline, one of my colleagues said, in sheer frustration, "If we as learning specialists can't do it, then who the hell can?" Maybe that's presumptuous — but maybe it's essentially realistic.

Maybe — as other professions ultimately seem to do — we're heading toward specialization (reading, math, media, counseling, ESL, etc.). But aren't the comprehensive concepts of learning centers and learning specialists just evolving from a former specialization anyway? And what are

the implications for the general practitioner? What about small campuses where there is only one person — how many roles can that person play?

I'm often asked by visiting college administrators where to find a learning specialist and how to judge his credentials. Good question — I face it myself when I recruit new staff. But I still don't have an easy answer. A reading specialist? An educational administrator? A multi-disciplinary scholar with excellent diplomatic and consultation skills? Or do I just recommend stealing someone who's at least had some on-the-job experience in a good program? At the moment, that's probably the best answer. Every other profession "knows" what a chemist, a doctor, a psychologist, or an engineer is — how he is trained and generally what should be expected of him. But witness frequent ads to hire directors of new learning centers: "from English, education, humanities, or *related areas*." If you hire a doctor, you hire one; you're in trouble if he just used to sweep the floor at the Rexall pharmacy or other "related areas".

The basic question, then: is the title "learning specialist" a profession distinguishable from others? Can it be? The issue becomes more complex because learning center concepts were apparently so logical and useful (and therefore accepted so quickly) that they have produced almost overwhelming staffing demands. Many of us have tried to keep up by staffing with bright, student-oriented "amateurs" from related fields; or by sending interested faculty back to summer workshops and other quick training sessions. We've had to hope that catch-as-catch-can training would suffice, at least until the snowball stopped at the bottom of the hill. But we're entering a very different stage now. The snowball has become an avalanche, and the bottom of the hill is not yet in sight. Even so, there will be new expectations of professional definition from the public and from our colleagues in higher education. We must set and adhere to professional standards and limits. We owe it to ourselves — and certainly to others — to begin such a self-analysis.

IN CONCLUSION

When I referred earlier to John Morgan's book *Managing Change*, I didn't mention the main reason it was brought to my attention. The opening lines read, "Nothing is ever completed. In managing change, managers particularly must never lose their tolerance for ambiguity . . ." (7:3) Those who know me well know that my own tolerance for ambiguity is lower than low. I've really had to cultivate it in the last few years. For instance, I realize that I have raised issues here without supplying answers. I wondered at first if it was a cop-out — if having pointed up emerging problems, I was obligated to recommend immediate solutions. Then I decided that at this developmental stage in the midst of rapid growth, it's enough to be alert and sensitive to impending changes and their concommitant issues. There are no easy answers at the moment — the questions are still too new. But at least the issues are raised. Now you can refine them to suit the perspectives of your own inevitably unique situation. I will trust the perpetual vigilance and

ingenuity of groups such as WCRA to supply answers as soon as they're apparent.

We have come a long way — fast. We must now be alert to the implications of that growth where the ultimate scope of college learning centers and the roles of people who staff them are concerned. The major challenge is to assure that we control and manage change from within — rather than sleeping through it, wringing our hands, or ignoring it.

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A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING PEER COUNSELING PROGRAMS

Nancy Elizabeth Adams
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Stanford University

INTRODUCTION

Today almost all American institutions of higher learning are faced simultaneously with two horsemen of the Apocalypse — spiraling costs and serious budget cutbacks. Unfortunately, the purge of the system seems to hit student service organizations first; and at Stanford, things are no different. In light of these difficult times, many are professing para-professionalism as a panacea for financial ills. Because survival is at stake, these programs must demand sound planning, systematic implementation, and accountable evaluation. At the Learning Assistance Center (LAC), applying a systems model to the para-professional concept helped to organize, develop, and coordinate an academic peer counseling program.

WHAT IS THE SYSTEMS APPROACH?

The systems approach provides a framework for thinking by offering a formal step-by-step method of developing, administering, and evaluating programs. While a systematic organization doesn't necessarily simplify a task, it does facilitate understanding and coping with a complex situation by providing a conceptual tool for identifying problems, eliminating vagueness, and analyzing organizational interactions.

The systems approach focuses on the output goals of a program and works backwards, so to speak. The first step is to decide what the program or system should produce and then arrive at the components which are necessary to reach these goals. Next, one considers the relationship of these elements to each other and to the whole. This formalized process is developed into a series of charts which graphically conceptualize the program. The resulting

documentation contains enough information to provide either general or detailed knowledge of a program's operation, methods, and procedures. While a thorough analysis should produce an eight part package (9), the authors combined several parts to keep this paper of reasonable length.

A MODEL FOR PEER COUNSEING DEVELOPMENT, IMPLEMENTATION, AND EVALUATION

Chart 1 is an overall flowchart for peer counseling programs in general. The chart highlights five basic program phases: needs assessment, program planning, proposal activities, implementing the program, and evaluation. The remainder of this paper will be organized around these five categories, with specifics of the LAC Peer Counseling Program interjected.

1.0 ASSESS NEEDS

Accurate determination of expectations of the school environment and needs/expectations of students are critical to the development of appropriate peer counseling goals and objectives.

Reviewing available resources should include an assessment of existing materials, equipment, facilities, personnel, funding as well as those which can be acquired.

While a dearth of peer counseling literature exists, interested parties might consult professional journals and the reference section of this paper, particularly Brown (5) and Carkhuff (6).

Organizers of para-professional programs are encouraged to gather information/ideas on comparable programs via literature reviews, intra- and inter-campus communications, and professional workshops/conferences.

2.0 PLAN PROGRAM

2.1 Formulate Goals and Objectives

The following general goals were developed for the LAC Peer Counseling Program in order to

- provide drop-in study skills counseling in the Learning Lab during weekday hours of operation
- provide individual and small group counseling to supplement the LAC 1 Effective Learning Skills course
- provide outreach activities publicizing LAC services
- deliver high-quality basic attending and counseling training to LAC 100A (Peer Counseling Techniques) students
- develop measures for evaluating delivery of services
- provide LAC clientele with more personal attention than would be possible with a professional staff limited in number
- serve diverse clients by providing similar age/ethnic/academic resource persons

- provide teaching assistants for LAC 1 Effective Learning Skills and LAC 100A Peer Counseling Techniques
- change the role of professional staff into that of peer counseling trainer and supervisor.

Specific objectives for LAC 100A students can be categorized into knowledge and skill area competencies; knowledge area competencies include:

- terminology
- LAC services
- self-management principles
- study skills techniques
- referral techniques and resources
- basic listening and counseling skills
- counseling limitations and ethics of professionalism
- own counseling strengths and weaknesses.

Skill area competencies include:

- appropriate use of verbal and non-verbal attending skills as described by Ivey and Gluckstern (14)
- appropriate use of self-disclosure, silence, modeling, open and closed questioning, constructive guidance/instruction to facilitate counseling interaction
- relaxation and confidence in an interactive counseling situation
- creative problem-solving based on principles of behavior change
- ability to "center" self and focus on the immediate counseling interaction without distraction
- willingness to refer counselee to another person or counselor

2.2 Delivery System

Knowledge area competencies are taught by using a lecture/discussion format, supplemented by Hackney and Nye (12), Ivey and Gluckstern (14), Pauk (18), Watson and Tharp (22). Skill acquisition is achieved through observation of competent models and participation in videotaped role plays. Analytical problem-solving is developed through simulated practice, as is confidence in interpersonal communication — realization of personal limitations, values, biases, and strengths.

2.3 Select and Develop Materials

Texts were selected (see Section 2.2) and materials developed including course syllabi, specific lesson plans, handouts distributed to participants, and instructional videotapes produced by Stanford Counseling and Psychological Services.

2.4 Evaluation Procedures

Evaluation procedures were defined for the program, peer counselors, and counselors. (See Sections 5.1 and 5.2 for further details.)

2.5 Systems Flowcharts

The drawing of systems flowcharts and organizational charts will initially be a time consuming process; however, they serve as an excellent framework for program organization, refinement, and transmittal.

3.0 PROPOSAL ACTIVITIES

Generally, agencies offering grants provide specific directions for proposal format. It is highly recommended that a text of technical writing, such as Mills and Walter (16), be consulted for general guidelines.

4.0 IMPLEMENT PROGRAM

4.1 Implement According to Plan

Charts 2 and 3 depict the overall system of actualizing goals described in Section 2.1. Chart 2 highlights the steps a student takes on the road to becoming an academic peer counselor; Chart 3 describes this process in much more detail.

Chart 2, Component Analysis of Academic Peer Counseling Program, begins with input sources for recruitment, the major sources being personal selection and the LAC 1 course titled "Effective Learning Skills." Other recruitment inputs include word of mouth, quarterly time schedule of classes, and various other sources.

Students expressing interest in becoming peer counselors are asked to come to a screening interview. Those selected for peer counseling training enroll in LAC 100A "Peer Counseling Techniques." Generally, five to eight students are accepted into the program each quarter. The few who are not selected have typically gone on to participate in other peer counseling programs on campus.

LAC 100A students meet two nights a week for approximately ten weeks to receive a total of four quarter units. Basically, one night a week is spent practicing basic attending skills in a role play and videotaped situations. The second night is spent discussing readings, counseling techniques, self-management projects and study skills content.

Upon successful completion of LAC 100A, the student is prepared to counsel in the Learning Lab and enrolls in LAC 101A "Peer Counseling Practicum." Here, students receive from one to three units for attending a weekly seminar and staffing the Learning Lab. LAC 1 students visit the Lab on a regular basis and many other Stanford students come to the Lab on a drop-in basis. Because peer counselors are trained every quarter (except Summer) and many students stay on to counsel for more than one quarter and/or move on to become peer counseling trainers, approximately twelve students are enrolled in LAC 101A per quarter.

Students selected to train peer counselors enroll in LAC 102A "Training Peer Counselors." These students work with the LAC 1 instructor or peer counseling trainer. Unit enrollment for LAC 102A can range from one to three units. A total of twelve units may be earned on a Pass/No Credit basis for participation in LAC 100A, 101A, and 102A.

Chart 3, Flow Chart/Component Analysis of Academic Peer Counseling Program, lists specifics of recruitment, screening, LAC 1, LAC 100A, LAC 101A, and LAC 102A. In recruitment, students from diverse ethnic and academic backgrounds are encouraged to apply. Of interest in the screening interview are the students' reasons for wanting to become a peer counselor, their expectations of the program and themselves, their ability to master new material, and their projection of interpersonal skills like being a good listener, reflecting thoughts and feelings, and exhibiting positive regard for others. It is important that the student take LAC 1 (Effective Learning Skills) prior to or during enrollment in the training course (LAC 100A). Objectives for LAC 1 students can be divided into skill and behavioral levels. At the skill level, students are required to demonstrate knowledge of study techniques as presented by Pauk (18). Assignments are made for students to apply these techniques to other course work. Class meetings are used to discuss student reactions to study techniques and devise means for personalizing models to suit individual study needs. At the behavioral level, students work on self-management projects in conjunction with peer counselors. A strategy for designing, implementing, and evaluating self-management projects is available from the authors. With the close counsel of peers in the Lab, students collect baseline information, set study objectives, develop shaping plans, monitor, and record progress in an attempt to improve two specific study behaviors.

Objectives for LAC 100A students include:

1. developing basic attending skills
2. developing specific counseling skills
3. displaying attending and counseilng skills in simulatedcounseling situations
4. demonstrating knowledge of self management and study skills techniques through problem solving activities
5. designing, implementing and evaluating a self-changeproject
6. discussing professional ethics and counseling limitations
7. discussing the topic of referrals to other campus agencies — counseling and otherwise.

Supervised application of these skills takes place in LAC 101A. As previously mentioned, peer counselors staff the Learning Lab to counsel LAC 1 and drop-in students. In the weekly seminar, peer counselors discuss counseling experiences, study skills content, decision-making strategies, and other special topics, professionalism, referrals and outreach. Many peers are concerned about taking counseling out of the Lab to reach students more directly. Thus, credit is also given to peers who spend time counseling students in dormitories.

LAC 102A students act as group discussion facilitators for LAC 1, assist the LAC 1 instructor with in-class activities, aid peer counseling trainers by actively participating in the role play of counseling situations, conduct special seminars for various campus agencies, and meet informally with dorm residents.

Chart 4, Organizational Structure — Academic Peer Counseling Program, lists major responsibilities of participants and staff.

4.2 Change Plan

A critical requirement of formative evaluation is the willingness and support of all parties involved to constantly examine and revise the program plan as new information and feedback are acquired.

5.0 EVALUATE PROGRAM

According to the authors' experience, evaluation has been and continues to be the weakest component of peer counseling programs. Each counseling situation is acutely different, involving different types and degrees of counselee problems / emotions and counselor strategies/ responses. Given these considerations, enormous amount of time and energy was devoted to creating appropriate means for evaluating the LAC Peer Counseling Program.

5.1 Evaluate According to Plan

Both formative and summative evaluation measures were designed to assess the attainment of program goals and objectives stated in Section 2.1. A major goal of the training program is the acquisition of basic attending and counseling skills. A summative means for evaluating this competency are the pre- and post-test videotapes of simulated counseling situations. A more formative means of assessment is the continual feedback students receive on their progression through the Ivey and Gluckstern manual (14).

Methods of assessing the demonstration and integration of microcounseling skills include recording frequencies of use and judging the appropriateness of use on effectiveness rating scales.

Knowledge of study skills content and self-management strategies is assessed through class discussions, written examinations, oral presentations, self-change projects, and research projects.

During LAC 101A "Peer Counseling Practicum", peer counselors maintain journals where they enter perceptions of counseling situations. Lab visits are summarized in terms of major issues, problems, and ideas. In addition, peer counselors receive informal feedback from the peer counseling trainer and supervisor. More formal assessments are made through tape recordings of actual counseling situations which are reviewed by a staff member along with the peer counselor. At the end of each quarter, LAC 1 students rate the overall effectiveness of peer counselors. Scores have consistently been comparable to ratings for graduate level counselors employed prior to the peer counseling program. Counselees also complete a rating scale of affective dimensions. Counselee progress toward improved study behavior is evidenced by comparing pre- and post-inventories of study habits, self-assessment and self-evaluation papers, and progress with self-management projects.

Participants in LAC 102A (Training Peer Counselors) confer with the trainer and supervisor to evaluate progress on an individualized basis.

5.2 Present Results

Undoubtedly, the institution and/or project sponsor will require a report on program effectiveness. Evidence of attaining stated goals and objectives, supportive data, interpretation of results, and concluding remarks should be included. Number of students enrolled, number of students earning passing grades, and the total number of units completed reflect student participation in the peer counseling course sequence. Hours of Lab operation plus frequency counts of clients seen yield pertinent information on student utilization of services offered. In addition, results of formative and summative evaluations described in Section 5.1 should be summarized.

5.3 Ongoing Evaluation

This area of the flowchart stresses evaluation as a never-ending process of review, revise, and recycle. At Stanford, the Dean's Advisory Committee on Peer Counseling, LAC staff, peer counselors, and Lab clientele play active roles in this progress.

SUMMARY

In the context of an operating Learning Assistance Center, a systems approach has been employed to design, implement, and evaluate an academic peer counseling program. With progression through a three quarter course sequence, peer counselors become increasingly familiar with the practical, the theoretical, and technological aspects of counseling via lectures, discussions, counseling manuals, directed readings, supervised practice, and actual case work. The course has been successful as evidenced by counselee progress toward study skill acquisition and behavior change, steady enrollment and high rate of course completion, positive client ratings of program and counselor effectiveness, and increased outreach contacts. The systems approach simplifies administrative tasks and program transmittal.

In closing, it is important to stress this is by no means the first course of its kind; the authors assume many similar courses exist. However, it is hoped that this description of the Stanford system will increase the number of para-professional peer counseling programs which systematically train university, community college, and high school students to assume the role of an effective and meaningful helper to their fellow students.

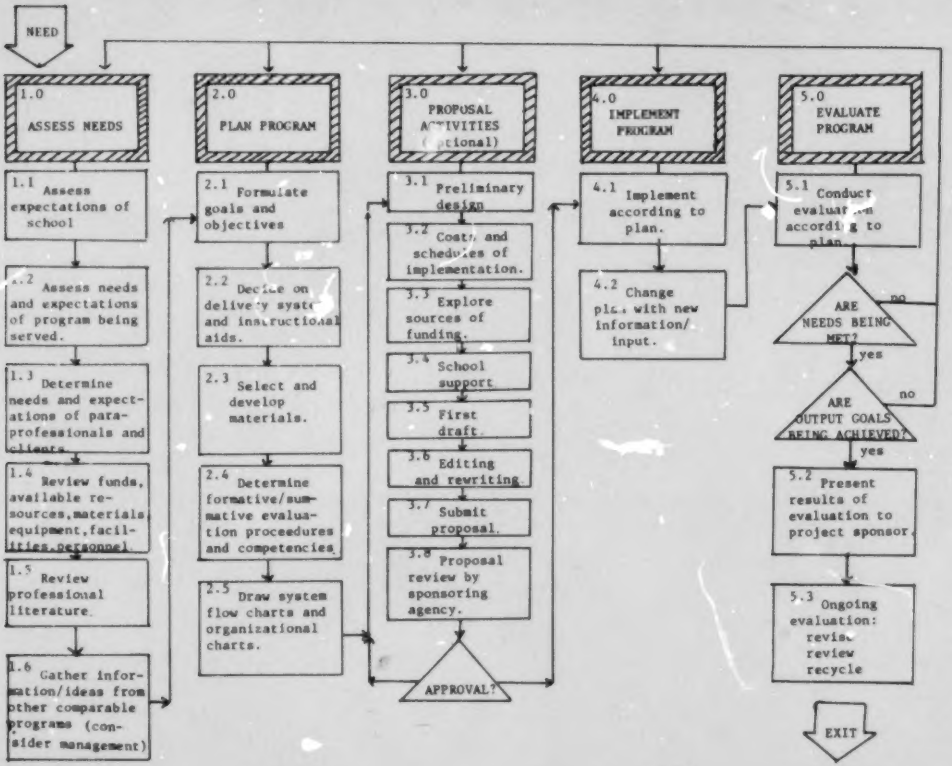
NEED
1.0 ASSESS NEEDS
1.1 Assess expectations of school
1.2 Assess needs and expectations of program being served.
1.3 Determine needs and expectations of para-professionals and clients.
1.4 Review funds, available resources, materials, equipment, facilities, personnel.
1.5 Review professional literature.
1.6 Gather information/ideas from other comparable programs (consider management)
2.0 PLAN PROGRAM
2.1 Formulate goals and objectives
2.2 Decide on delivery system and instructional aids.
2.3 Select and develop materials.
2.4 Determine formative/summative evaluation proceedures and competencies
2.5 Draw system flow charts and organizational charts.
3.0 PROPUSAL ACTIVITIES (optional)
3.1 Preliminary design
3.2 Costs and schedules of implementation.
3.3 Explore sources of funding.
3.4 School support
3.5 First draft
3.6 Editing and rewriting
3.7 Submit proposal.
3.8 Proposal review by sponsoring agency.
APPROVAL?
4.0 IMPLEMENT PROGRAM
4.1 Implement according to plan.
4.2 Change plan with new information/ input.
5.0 EVALUATE PROGRAM
5.1 Conduct evaluation according to plan.
ARE NEEDS BEING MET?
no
yes
ARE OUTPUT GOALS BEING ACHIEVED?
no
yes
5.2 Present results of evaluation to project sponsor.
5.3 Ongoing evaluation: revise review recycle
EXIT

Chart 1

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Chart 2

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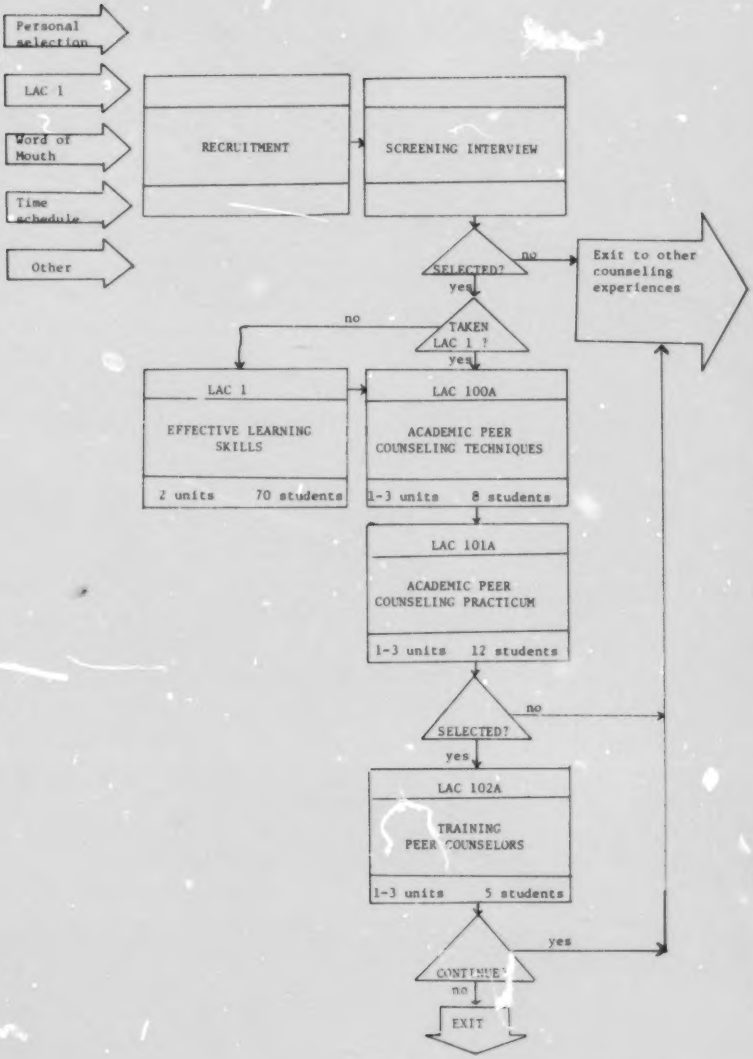

Chart 3

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Chart 4

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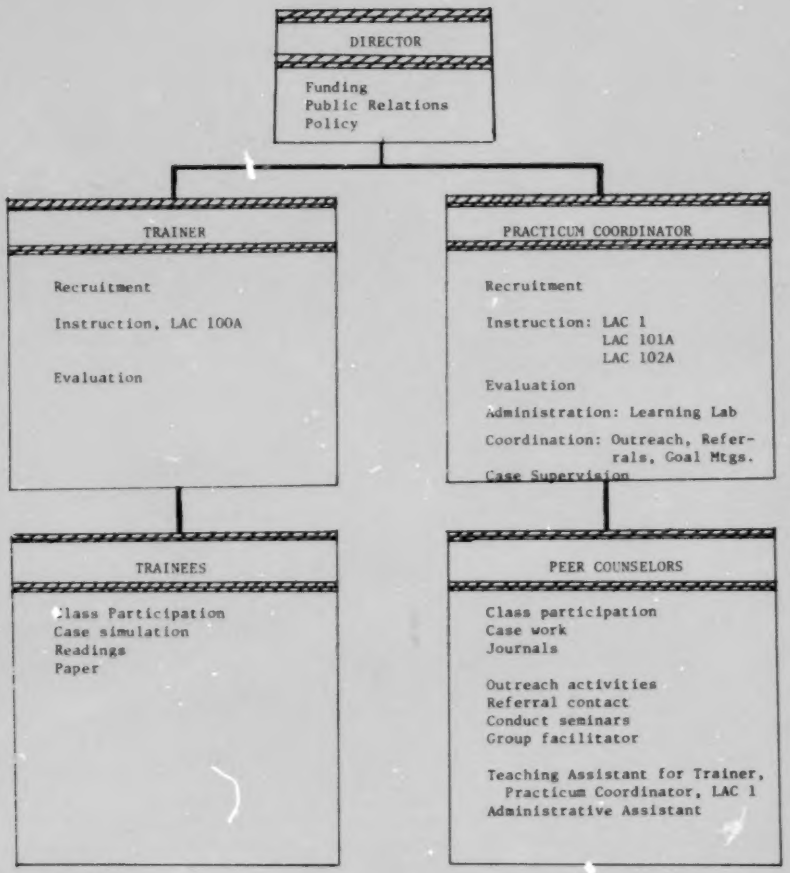

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SETTING GOALS AND EVALUATING TUTORIAL PROGRAMS

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INTRODUCTION

Every educational program should be evaluated regularly and systematically to provide data for those who must decide to continue, change, or terminate the venture. However, it is impossible to appropriately and validly evaluate a program which was only vaguely planned. Well-defined and specifically-stated purposes, objectives, and goals are necessary to provide criteria by which to determine how well and to what extent program purposes are being achieved

PLANNING THE PROGRAM

A successful program — one that achieves its purposes — does not happen by accident. Much preparation went into making it happen by people who answered in advance the following questions (1:13):

1) *What* should be accomplished?
2) *Why* should it be done? (Who are or should be the beneficiaries?)
3) *Where* should it be done?
4) *When* should it be done?
5) *Who* should do it?
6) *How* should it be performed?

Mager (11:v) developed these three basic questions similar to Alexander's which are paraphrased here:

1. What is it that we must do?
2. How will we know when we have done it?
3. What materials and procedures will work best to do what we wish to do?

Several other evaluation experts have developed similar sets of questions (10:5-11; 14:539-40; 15:193; 16:3,205; 17:39-41). Asking the right questions at the outset is a major ingredient in any successful undertaking.

Comprehensive planning includes setting policies; taking inventory of resources; formulating purposes, objectives, goals, and performance standards, and developing an effective method of evaluation, including the commitment to utilize evaluative data (1:13-15; 9:221-230).

Mager (11:viii, vii) stated: "Before you prepare a program, before you choose material, machine, or method, it is important to state clearly what your goals are . . . otherwise . . . if you're not sure where you're going, you're liable to end up someplace else — and not even know it." This remains true, even if you get "someplace else" very quickly and efficiently.

Mager (11:3) also succinctly stated, "When clearly defined goals are lacking, it is impossible to evaluate a course or program efficiently, and there is no sound basis for electing appropriate materials . . . or instructional methods."

Hill and Dressel agreed (9:27): "If objectives are to give direction and coherence to the educational process, they must be carefully selected and so stated that they provide bases for selection of materials and methods and ultimately for evaluation."

Although Mager wrote his book primarily for classroom teachers and emphasized observable and measurable student behavior (performance), it is imperative reading for people inexperienced in planning programs and specifically stating objectives and goals for those programs. He also well demonstrates how performance (i.e., results or outcome) is measured or evaluated according to the criteria (objectives and goals) originally selected.

The following definitions are helpful in program planning:

A *purpose* may be defined as "a broad statement of aspiration" (1:13). For example, a primary purpose for any tuorial program is to provide students doing poorly in a class with a qualified tutor.

An *objective* is a more specific statement which, if achieved, will produce progress toward fulfilling a purpose (1:14). Two such objectives at California State University, Fresno, are to "gain the confidence and cooperation of school deans and department chairpersons . . ." and to "provide adequate funding . . ." (3:1)

A *goal* is a still more specific statement designed to facilitate achievement of a stated objective (1:15). Three imperative goals are to interview each tutor applicant and to obtain a written recommendation by an appropriate instructor in order to assess his/her qualifications, to interview each tutee to assess his/her needs, and to train and regularly consult with tutors.

Finally, a *performance standard* may be defined as "a measurement by which performance can be evaluated" (1:15). Essentially, a good job description clearly states performance standards (i.e., behavioral expectations or observable/measurable performance). For example, a program director may have the responsibility to develop sources of revenue and to train tutors in the area of study skills and time management. A tutor, among other things,

must meet all tutees punctually and turn in all vouchers and monthly reports by the date specified.

EVALUATION

In an educational setting evaluation has been defined in a variety of ways. Phillips (12:2) defined it as "the procedure used in determining the value or worth of a process or thing . . ." He later specified that an "adequate evaluation program" must 1) be related to objectives; 2) be comprehensive and uniform; 3) utilize a variety of means and techniques in gathering data; 4) use both subjective and objective means of collecting data; 5) be continuous and consistent; and 6) be functional, practical and understood by all persons concerned (12:11).

Stuffelbeam and his Phi Delta Kappa associates (16:xxv-vi) stated that evaluation is an act of "relating performance to objectives," and defined it as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." They also stated that evaluation is more than just measurement because it consists both of description and judgment (16:9, 32).

Suchman (17:28) quoted the American Public Health Association's conceptual, operational definition:

> The process of determining the value or amount of success in achieving a predetermined objective. It includes at least the following steps: Formulation of the objective, identification of the proper criteria to be used in measuring success, determination and explanation of the degree of success, recommendations for further program activity.

He then quoted Riechen's definition (17:28) which states, "the measurement of desirable and undesirable consequences of an action that has been taken in order to forward some goal we value." The latter definition indicates that one must be willing to deal forthrightly with negative feedback, and to acknowledge explicitly that values are definitely involved in any program.

Stake (14:525) also emphasized that both description and judgment are components of the evaluation process. Values often compete if not conflict with each other (including individuals or groups promoting them). The evaluator must look for them and assist the program planner in realizing and facing them (15:182; 17:32-3).

Scriven (13) distinguished between "formative" and "summative" evaluation. The former type is conducted in conjunction with developing new programs; whereas, the latter form is used in assessing the effectiveness of existing programs (cf. 5:733 and 10:1).

Regarding the purpose of evaluation, Astin and Panos (5:733) stated that while it involves collection of data about an educational program's impact which can be used many ways, *"the fundamental purpose of education is to produce information which can be used in educational decision making."* The

decision can be to continue, terminate, or modify a current program, or to develop a new program.

Weiss (18:4) stated the purpose of evaluation is "to measure the effects of a program against the goals it set out to accomplish as a means of contributing to subsequent decision making about the program. . . ." Therefore, goals must be clear, specific, and measurable. Furthermore, the measure or definition of "success" should be agreed upon beforehand by the principals involved (18:26, 32; (cf. 15: 182). However, the standard or measurement of success may vary between criterion-referencing (absolute standard) and norm-referencing (relative standard) (7:7; 2:100).

Several other authors (2:136-7; 17:30; 18:16) have also discussed purposes of evaluation; however, the scope of this paper does not allow for repeating them. Wilhelms (20:4) indicated the test of a successful evaluation program is simply: "Does it deliver the feedback that is needed, when it is needed, to the persons or groups who need it?" This means that even the evaluation process must be evaluated (15:204).

Finally, evaluation should not be a "one-shot", end-of-program event, but should be done periodically or regularly. Data may be obtained in a variety of ways such as personal interview, questionnaire, rating scale, staff and student subjective opinions, and student performance. Staff performance, office procedures, instruments and materials used — all phases of the program — need to be scrutinized. Then, based upon feedback obtained (9:221-30), the system must be modified accordingly with cherished procedures and familiar materials being discarded if necessary.

CONCLUSION

In summary, if a tutorial program is to have any chance for success, it must have well-defined purposes, objectives, and goals.

Also, a variety of data must be collected on a regular or continuous basis which are then used in decisions affecting both the immediate functioning and future of the program.

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EXPERIENCING A TUTOR TRAINING WORKSHOP

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Goals of the "Tutorial Component of the Special Student Services Project," a federally-funded program for low-income freshmen, at New Mexico State University are (1) to help students with immediate course problems, and (2) to help students become independent learners.

Although academically-qualified tutors have the knowledge to help students in specific courses, they do not necessarily know how to communicate this knowledge or how to help others become independent learners. The training workshop provides skill development for tutors in these areas. Tutors have the opportunity to evaluate their own study habits, to develop interviewing/listening skills important in assisting students to evaluate their own learning needs, to experience specific situations in which they can practice communicating effectively with students, and to expand their knowledge of specific study skills.

Using an experiential approach, tutors actively participate in the workshop through brainstorming, role playing, evaluating self and others in the tutoring situation, and participating in small group sessions. The goal of the workshop is to promote tutor empathy with his or her students and to increase confidence in the tutor's own ability to assist the students in becoming independent learners.

The activities in this workshop are the result of suggestions, observations, and evaluations from several sources. The use of micro-counseling was adapted from Allen E. Ivey (2). Combining microcounseling and study skills in the training of tutors was suggested by Dahlke and Schnier (1). The experiential design was an outgrowth of participation in the Graduate Student Professional Development Program at the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science (3). Emphasis on role playing and study skills has been suggested by tutors and peer counselors of the Special Student Services

Program. Students, themselves, have indicated the need for tutors to be understanding and supportive. The total workshop has evolved from personal development and experiences over a period of years.

This paper includes the general activities that could be adaptable to any tutorial workshop. The tutor workshop activities that could be adaptable to any tutorial workshop. The tutor workshop at New Mexico State University lasts one day. Specific workshop activities have been omitted that pertain to the New Mexico State University Special Student Services Program.

BRAINSTORMING STUDY TECHNIQUES

Students who qualify to be tutors have already demonstrated by their grade point averages that they have developed effective study techniques. Since often good students are not consciously aware of their own study techniques, the following activity was developed to help the tutors recognize their own study strengths so that they, in turn, will be able to share these strengths with others.

The participants are divided into groups of eight to ten and are asked to brainstorm on their personal study techniques. At the end of ten to fifteen minutes, each group shares its list with the total group. All of the ideas are then written on a blackboard and discussed. Following the discussion, participants are asked to evaluate what they have learned from the exercise.

MINI-SESSIONS ON STUDY SKILLS

Although tutors have developed effective study techniques, these techniques may or may not work for other students. Part of a tutor's responsibility is to help each student develop study methods that will be effective for him or her. Through mini-sessions on specific skills areas, tutors learn alternative study techniques.

Tutors attend mini-sessions on notetaking, scheduling time, reading a textbook, test taking, and concentrating. Each mini-session lasts approximately forty minutes and is structured to include participant involvement and/or group interaction. For example, during the mini-session on scheduling time, a workshop facilitator demonstrates techniques and the participants apply them in filling out their own schedules. A similar method is employed in each of the other sessions. At the end of each session, participants are given a bibliography of additional references available at the Special Student Services Learning Assistance Center.

DEVELOPING INTERVIEWING SKILLS

Tutors have the responsibility of assisting the student in identifying his or her academic/study problems. To do this, the tutor must be an effective interviewer. Ivey (2) has broken down interviewing skills into related groups, one of which is beginning skills of interviewing. These skills include:

eye contact, body position, verbal following, open-ended questioning, and minimal encouragement to talk. In order for a student to want to convey his or her problems, he or she must feel that the tutor is actively listening. Training in these beginning skills of interviewing helps the tutor to provide a warm, accepting atmosphere so that students will feel comfortable in expressing their feelings.

In this activity, the participants divide themselves into groups of three. A role playing situation is presented to the group in which one person is the tutor and the other, the tutee. The tutor has poor eye contact and a closed, tight body position. After role playing, the participants comment on the tutor's behavior. The role playing is repeated, this time in a positive manner. The same procedure is used to illustrate verbal following, open invitation to talk, and minimal encouragement to talk. At the end of the role playing demonstration, participants practice in their groups of three, taking turns being tutor, student and observer. The observer comments on the tutor's behavior at the end of each role playing. To conclude, the participants are asked to share their feelings about their participation, and the general effectiveness of this activity.

CONTACTING STUDENTS

The initial contact with a student is frequently the most important contact. It is here that the tutor sets the atmosphere for the rest of the tutoring relationship. Often a student has never had a tutor before and has no idea how to benefit from one. In the first session, it is important to communicate to the student what is expected of him or her, what a tutor will and will not do, and how to get the most out of the time spent with the tutor.

In this activity, a brainstorming session is held, focusing on (1) what to do when first contacting the student, and (2) what to cover in the first session. Participants are divided into small groups. Each group brainstorms in the above-mentioned areas. At the end of ten minutes, the groups report back their ideas and discuss the initial contact in general.

The final role playing activity allows the tutors to integrate their subject matter knowledge, their interviewing skills, and their study skills knowledge in role playing specific tutoring situations. Each group is given a list of possible situations. The list may include:

(1) student is very withdrawn and has difficulty articulating a problem
(2) student has poor study habits
(3) student says he understands a concept but can't explain it
(4) student is not prepared for tutoring session and expects tutor to do homework
(5) student is having difficulty reading the textbook.

Participants take turns being tutor, tutee, and observer. After each role playing, the observer comments on what he or she has seen, giving positive feedback first and suggestions for improvement second. At the end of the activity, participants share their overall feelings about the role playing.

EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION

Part of the design of this workshop calls for continuous evaluation throughout the day. Tutors are encouraged to give feedback after each activity. At the close of the workshop, tutors complete a simple form asking the following questions: What did you like about the workshop? What did you dislike about the workshop? What are your suggestions for improving the workshop? From these three questions sufficient information can be easily obtained to evaluate the effectiveness of the workshop.

Activities in this training workshop were developed to meet the tutorial goals of the New Mexico State University Special Student Services Project. However, these may be applicable to similar programs. They are designed to assist the tutor in recognizing his or her own study strengths, to develop alternative study skills, to be an effective interviewer/listener, and to become sensitive to the needs of the students. It is hoped that through these awarenesses, the tutor will be able to help the student with his or her immediate problems so that the student can become an independent learner.

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A CLINICAL APPROACH TO READING IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGES

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An analysis of placement test scores each semester at Compton College shows many native-born students reading at 4.0 or below on the Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Paragraph Meaning.

In the Fall 1974 semester, we implemented plans for meeting the special needs of the learning disabled by offering a new class, Reading Workshop. Since we did not have the services of a neurologist or a psychometrist to help us screen for potential candidates, we devised a system of standardized tests, behavioral tasks and observation. We were about 90% correct in placing students in the Reading Workshop.

Once the student is placed in the Reading Workshop, we proceed to verify the reading level with the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test, Level II. This test is designed for students in grades 4 through 8. While the test measures a bit high at the upper end, as diagnostic tests often will, it is a rather accurate verifier for students under 4.0. In addition to giving grade level, the SDRT has a number of subtests — literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, vocabulary, syllabication, sound discrimination, blending and rate — which enable the examiner to plot a profile on the student. In the remediation process, the profile can be helpful in suggesting directions to pursue.

Another test we administer is a teacher-made spelling test of 50 items, starting with words as simple as "sad" and ending with words as complex as "scream" and "throat." We are in the process of establishing norms for this task and we feel that it is definitely a discriminator in selecting students who need the Workshop class.

A final screening instrument is the assignment of an autobiographical essay. Directions and suggestions are given to the student on a handout and are discussed. Many things can be assessed through this vehicle — the ability of

the student to handle the language with regard to word order, complexity of sentence structure, cohesiveness of thought, vocabulary level, spelling ability (ability to hold a visual image), and even motor ability in handwriting. There is no objective way to score the essay, but, in conjunction with the other instruments, it is a valuable tool in making the correct placement for a student.

After a student is placed in the Reading Workshop class, additional diagnostic testing is done by his tutor. The Keystone Telebinocular Eye Test is administered to all students. If necessary, retesting is done, and the student is advised of the results. In addition, if needed, the Goldman-Fristoe-Woodcock Test of Auditory Discrimination is given. This test not only points out the particular speech sounds that the student cannot discriminate, but it also tells you if a student probably will have difficulty concentrating on instruction in an environment that is not quiet (a reading lab possibly would fit this description). Once in the class, the students are introduced to the *Reading Through Listening* program.

After the early exercises in word and number recognitions, the focus is on word combinations. It is extremely important to explore the multiple meanings of the words through class discussion, and to include any idiomatic expressions that contain the word or a form of it. The directions in the book tell students to look up unknown words in the dictionary, but this is an unrealistic, abstract skill to expect from students working at this level. It is much more productive to work orally as a group, as it enables the teacher to learn what the students think they hear. If one establishes a climate where students are comfortable and secure they will volunteer honest responses. It is necessary to do blackboard work so that students can compare images of similar words and are provided input via another modality. Drawing pictures alongside the words gives another helpful association.

It is helpful to call attention to how the sound is made the position of the tongue and lips, etc. as you compare similar sounding words. Although current theory is that it is virtually impossible to relearn basic speech units after the age of twelve because of changes in the operation of the brain, it's possible that through this combined approach of sight, sound, tracing, and body part awareness, students can improve their auditory discrimination skills.

Hearing & Seeing the Right Word exercises in *Reading Through Listening* cause some difficulties. The students are instructed to listen to and look at a sentence and cross out the word they did not hear. This is a two step process and contrary to school conditioning. It works better if one tells students to circle the heard word.

Another activity in the book, Building Three Letter Words, is one that needs close watching so that the responses are actual English words. Again, work should be done on the board so that all students in the class are exposed to the total number of possible combinations.

While there are spelling tests in the book, oftentimes it is necessary to make up new lists. This provides lots of success experiences and also pinpoints the few words that students haven't learned so that they can put them

on index cards and trace them for homework. A word of caution about some of the taped spelling checks — the words are dictated, not put into context, and sometimes they are sounds that can be spelled two or three ways (or, oar, ore.) Another suggestion — there are some words on the Rapid Recognition pages that are not listed on the "reading words" pages, and it is well to include them in discussions and quizzes. Also, lists of simple definitions of words can be used as a quiz in which the student supplies the defined words.

We did not limit the Reading Workshop program to just the *Reading Through Listening* book. During lab sessions, students worked on easy kits at levels from about second to fourth grade, but at adult interest levels. We also provided easy reading ethnic paperbacks on a self-selection basis. Another perfectly respectable activity was playing word games like Scrabble. Finally we worked with newspapers, spotting learned words and reading them in context.

During tutoring sessions, reinforcement was provided in the learning of words through the Fernald Technique. We use a rather simplified version of this technique, although we adhere to the basic principles. The word to be learned should be a relevant one in context of the classroom experience of reading, writing, and discussion, not just one pulled out of the air or from a vocabulary list. Depending on the stage of the learner's handwriting, the word is printed or written in cursive in crayon across an index card. Theoretically cursive is better because the word is learned as a connected whole. However, if the student is at the printing stage, it seems more reasonable to use print.

Throughout the program a student is never asked to sound out a word. He is asked to examine it visually, listen to it being pronounced, look at the teacher's mouth as it is being said, feel how his tongue, teeth and lips are positioned as he says it, and to feel how the word traces. The assumption is that unless he has lived in Taiwan all his life, he has been exposed to phonics somewhere along the line. Inferring from his behavior (almost invariably he can attach the correct sound to consonants), it is quite probable that he suffers from the inability to synthesize separate sounds into words.

Another technique utilized in tutoring is the Language Experience Approach, with cameras. The student shoots pictures of whatever interests him. The developed slides are projected and the tutee describes what is happening. The tutee's taped words are transcribed and used as a reading lesson at the next tutoring session. This system gets around the problems of unknown words and lack of experiential background.

We also try to provide as much support as possible for the students in coping with the rest of the institution so that our efforts at positive learning experiences are not destroyed in other classrooms. For example, we offer a test-reading service for teachers who are interested in assessing if the student absorbed the concepts presented in his answers. In addition, we do a lot of unofficial counseling, as much of our time is spent helping students solve problems.

We have also established a cooperative program with the California State

Department of Rehabilitation for making referrals to assist students — free glasses, hearing aids, medical checkups, career counseling, etc. — anything that will make the individual employable.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The first semester's evaluation of the Reading Workshop revealed the following:

1) Average growth in reading was 12 months, in a 4 month period. Previous semester's growth in regular classes was difficult to assess because most of the students in this category had dropped out and were not available to post-test.

2) Dropout rate was reduced tremendously. Regular classes have drop rates from a low of 33% to a high of 60% with 50% about average. This class had a drop rate of only 25%. It would appear that if a course meets the needs of a student, he will remain in spite of all his other problems.

Evaluation of the fall semester, 1975 showed about 17 months growth and better than average retention rate.

Not all of the students in the Reading Workshop are at a level of success predictability in the regular Reading & Study Improvement classes at the end of the first semester, so we have generated coursework for a second semester. The second half of the *Reading Through Listening* materials form the basis for this work, covering more complicated skills such as consonant blends, prefixes, suffixes, contractions, and cloze techniques. There are, however, several sections that should not be used with students at this level. The lessons on dictionary skills are inappropriate for several reasons. There is too much emphasis on phonics, and the concepts of word derivations and history are too difficult.

Another word of caution — in several places in *Reading Through Listening*, there are pages of rapid recognition of nonsense words. It is strongly advised that these pages be avoided as they can only confuse and frustrate students with a history of word recognition difficulties. It would be far better to move on to other pages of the book, most of which adhere to principles that will enhance the transfer of useful skills to the process of reading.

Probably the most useful technique we found for the improvement of acquisition of sight words, along with correct pronunciation, is the preparation of Language Master cards for the vocabulary in the text.

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MODIFYING THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH FOR ADULT LEARNERS

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The language experience approach to the teaching of reading builds on two things the learner brings with him — his oral language proficiency and his background of experiences. Building instructional materials on these foundations has the advantage of making the materials more relevant to the student, and advancing oral language skills at the same time that reading skills are promoted. The language experience approach as a means of providing beginning reading instruction has received considerable attention (2,3,4). However, use of the language experience approach with remedial students of all ages is equally valid (4), yet it has received considerably less attention.

The growth in the number of reading skills programs at the community and junior college level is clear evidence of the need to constantly be expanding our instructional approaches. Students in these reading skills programs typically fall into one of three need groups: (1) students with basic reading skill needs, (2) students with reading problems which relate to their acquisition of English as a second language or to differences between their spoken dialect and American standard, and (3) students whose basic reading skills are intact but who lack proficiency in study skills necessary to successfully meet the demands of a college program. The language experience approach to reading instruction can be adapted to meet the needs of each of these groups.

Students in the first category with basic skill needs, typically lack minimum literacy skills and are therefore unable to function successfully in this society. From an instructional perspective, these students present at least two major challenges. Quite often these students have been through years of failure situations in their previous school experiences. Although they are still trying to learn to read, they frequently come with little real

hope that they will, in fact, be successful. The first step, then, must be breaking this expectation of failure. The second major challenge in working with older remedial readers is the lack of relevant, interesting materials at the primer, first, and second reader levels. Dick and Jane are really insufficient for even the most motivated older learner. (4). The language experience approach to reading instruction has been developed for use with remedial readers in clinics at the University of Delaware and Temple University. The basic steps in the remedial use of language experience are

First Day:

1. Student *dictates* a "story" about some object of interest to him. Story is recorded (transcribed) *exactly* as stated.
2. Story is read back to him for corrections, additions, etc.

Second Day:

1. Student is given a typed copy of the story. He reads it silently, underlining all words that he knows.
2. Student reads the story orally while teacher records on a second copy any errors, omissions, etc. If the student cannot identify an unknown word by using context (reading to the end of the sentence) it is supplied.

Figure 1
THE TRIP

I'm supposed to go to Las Vegas. I'm leaving today at two. I plan to trip-out and win some money. I can go sight-seeing and go to the casinos.

Sequential List:

I'm	I'm	plan	money	go
supposed	leaving	to	I	to
to	today	trip-out	can	the
go	at	and	go	casinos
to	two	win	sight-seeing	
Las Vegas	I	some	and	

3. Student reads the *Sequential List* of words in the story, while teacher keeps a record of performance on a second copy. For some students the *Sequential List* may prove to be unnecessary and may be omitted.
4. Word attack training would be begun using *known* words from the story as the point of departure.

Third Day:

1. Student rereads story silently, and then orally, using the same procedure as on preceding day.

2. Student reads Scramble I list, following same procedure as for Sequential List of preceding day. (This list contains only the *known* words from the Sequential List, now in *random* order.)

Fourth Day:
Student reads Scramble II list, following usual procedure. (*Known* words from Scramble I list.)

Fifth Day:
Word cards are prepared from *Known* words of Scramble II, read and placed in "word bank."

This represents the cycle of one experience story. A new story may be dictated on the second day so that a student may deal with 2 or 3 stories in different stages of their cycle on the same days. Pacing should be decided on an individual basis.

Figure 2
POSSIBLE SCHEDULE DEPENDING ON TIME

Monday	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*
Dictate Story I	Read Story I	Reread Story I	Scr. II list Story I	Word cards Story I
	Seq. list from Story I	Scr. I list Story I	Reread Story II	Scr. II list Story II
	Dictate Story II	Read Story II	Scr. I list Story II	Dictate Story III
		Seq. list from Story II		

The remedial use of language experience as outlined provides solutions to the two major problems in working with readers with basic skill needs. First, it is often a new approach to the learner, and as such as the advantage of raising new hope. Even more importantly, it places heavy emphasis on learning words in a meaningful context, giving the reader much initial support and only gradually removing that support, so that the learner is given every chance at having a successful learning experience. In addition, the fact that the learner is providing his own "meaningful context" provides a powerful aid in maintaining the learner's interest and attention. The fact that the learner's words are considered "important enough" to be written down by someone else also often has a subtle effect on improving the learner's self-concept, and hence his ability to profit from instruction.

Some technical points about the remedial use of language experience should be noted. The language experience approach is an appropriate technique for use with any student whose usual speaking vocabulary exceeds his reading vocabulary, or for any student whose speaking and reading vocabularies are equivalent and can be expanded through the use of "story" stimulus manipulation. The approach, as outlined, refers only to the use of dictated stories. Certainly having the student also practice his own writing skills is important. However, a student will seldom attempt to write a word that he cannot already read; therefore, maximum reading improvement will come from having the student learn using materials which he has produced (dictated) but which have been transcribed by someone else. Often phonics and structural analysis skills must be developed, and the stories provide a means of transferring skills from known words to unknown words with a maximum probability of success. The stories also provide the instructor with a constant diagnostic check on skills attained and skills still needing development. Finally, the procedure has been outlined for use on a one-to-one basis. It may also be employed in a group setting, but group settings will cut down on the relevance and meaningfulness for any one student, a particularly important consideration for students in the first category.

Students with reading problems which relate to their acquisition of English as a second language or to differences between their spoken dialect and American standard can also profit from the language experience approach to reading. A number of procedural variations are possible. The language experience approach starts with a discussion of a stimulus. This can be used to provide valuable oral language practice, in either individual or group situations. A group discussion can be followed either by a group-dictated story (most useful when students are reluctant to use their new language) or by individual dictation to the teacher which will provide several different pieces of "reading" material on the topic.

Frequently students in this second category have basic skill needs similar to students in category one. One of the biggest obstacles to a successful instructional program for these students is lack of culturally-relevant instructional materials. Multiple dictations from discussion of one stimulus can provide instructional materials in English to be shared by a number of students, while at the same time providing materials which are culturally more relevant than published materials. Again, the stories act as a constant diagnostic indicator to the teacher of language usage and vocabulary skills that need to be further developed.

Dictation in the student's first language can also serve a useful purpose. After reading and discussing new concepts in English the student can dictate an account of the materials in his first language to be used for study and review. Translations by a third party often are not as helpful as translations by the student himself since again, they came from a different background of experiences and different language proficiency.

The third group of students, or those needing study skill development, can also benefit from use of the language experience approach. For these stu-

dents, the "stimulus" used is usually reading or being read to from text materials, followed by a dictated account of that material. The dictated account itself provides oral practice in summarization. From this point, emphasis shifts from primary concern with word recognition skills, as with the first two groups, to use of the student's dictation as sources for activities on development of such study skills as locating the main idea, identifying the significant details, sequencing, and eventually outlining. In addition, sentences from the stories can be used for language expansion or grammatical training exercises. Certainly these skills can be developed using workbooks or kits, but paragraphs, such as the following from a group dictated story following the reading of the book *Hiroshima* provide a much richer and more meaningful source.

> A flash! There was a bunch of dust. The wind came after the flash. People's skin starts to burn. Buildings after. People are killed. There is a big fire in the middle of town when the bomb hit. Nobody knows it's an atomic bomb. Dr. Fuji lay in dreadful pain. Father LaSalle helped a lot of people get out of the ruins. Dr. Fuji helped a lot by putting bandages on their injuries.

This paragraph could be used, for example, for developing the concept of main idea or for sequencing of events.

It may be argued that the older the student the more important it is for us to take advantage of the rich background of experiences and cognitive wealth (4) the learner brings to the task. The language experience approach not only makes full use of these riches, but also has the flexibility to be adapted to meet the needs of each individual. In addition, it can be used successfully either as the main approach to instruction or as one component of an instructional program. It's adaptation for adults at the reading skills level has much to offer both student and instructor.

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SURVIVAL IN THE UNIVERSITY: TEACHING HIGHER ORDER LEARNING SKILLS

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Institutions of higher education in the United States provide study skills instruction for their students with the expectation that such instruction will enable students to achieve greater academic success. Study problems are not the only cause of academic failure; previous achievement, level of reading comprehension, orientation toward study, and certain personality and attitudinal factors are also important. Study strategies, however, are major factors and are amenable to change.

Current practices in reading and study skills programs show a reliance upon prepared materials and pacing devices for improvement of study and reading skills. The success of such practices in effecting a change in student grades has not been adequately demonstrated, since the results of such courses is usually measured by pre- and post test score changes on standardized speed and comprehension tests. Suggestions that such courses are not reaching the real problem comes from some reserach on successful students as compared to less successful students in college. Weinstein and Gipple (1974) found study skills scores of University of Washington medical school students significantly correlated with study skills scores: the two factors which provided the best prediction were ability to select important or required data and ability to organize and synthesize materials. Similarly, in another project a discriminant analysis of self-reported study strategies by Goldman and Warren (1973) found that those upper division students earning above a 3.0 grade point average were significantly more diligent and more cognitively active by assimilating information rather than memorizing it.

THE STUDY SKILLS COURSE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO

The results of such research and the observation of a qualitative difference in the study required of university students has led to a study skills course at the University of Idaho which teaches students to organize, analyze, and synthesize information rather than record and memorize information. The one-credit study skills course at the University of Idaho is a crash course in university survival, designed to provide skills needed in demanding upper division and technical courses as well as introductory courses. Utilizing a combination of unique and tried-and-true strategies, the course focuses on building higher order thinking skills in note-taking, text-reading, and test-taking through a sequence of activities. For each new skill students are given a class explanation-demonstration, followed by a group exercise in textbook material taken from a currently-used textbook. Students practice the skill in class, immediately compare their work to a teacher's model, then are assigned further practice in their own reading assignments from other classes.

Basic to the study system is a set of guide words which assist the student in separating different kinds of information. These guides are the WHAT's or defining-describing information, the HOW's or process information, then the WHY's or information on the significasnce or importance of a concept or event. These guides are loosely based upon the Bloom taxonomy of the cognitive domain (1956), with the defining and describing information corresponding to the knowledge level, and the process information corresponding to the comprehension level of the hierarchy. The information relating to the importance or significance of events or ideas corresponds to the more difficult kinds of comprehension and assists the student in understanding why a topic is included in the course.

The What, How, Why guides are incorporated into note taking first. The note taking system is a modification of the Cornell system advocated by Palmatier (1973) and taught by Pauk (1974), a two-column division of notes which uses the left column for organizing information. To this is added the three guides, with the expectation that definitions and descriptions are often provided in text and lecture in approximately the form needed in the notes, while process information must often be summarized by the student.

Students next practice a study-reading technique based upon the familiar SQ3R of Frank Robinson (1970). The What, How, Why guides are used to formulate the questions students are instructed to ask before they begin reading. Students are given several experiences summarizing textbook information, such as summaries of their survey of a chapter in a text, summaries of questions teased out of headings, and summaries of a chapter into a one- or two-page review sheet.

Students are given the theoretical underpinnings of the guides they have been using at the introduction of the mini-unit on examination preparation. They are reminded the college graduate has become a knowledge user capable of deciding which information is important. Knowledge level information, which is the level most easily learned, is the least useful for sequential

kinds of learning, and thus receives less emphasis in those courses which are the foundation for professional preparation. The lowest level of the comprehension level is translation to one's own words, which is a skill gained in the note-organizing system taught in the study skills course. The knowledge of processes, including causes of an event or concept, the function of a concept or process, and connections or relationships between one event or concept and another are difficult to learn and are most solidly learned by summarizing, an activity that is part of the comprehension level of learning. The importance of practicing for a test in the level of difficulty required by the test items is also explained in terms of the taxonomy.

This approach to tests through the cognitive taxonomy illustrates why application or practice application of problem-solving is essential as a preparation for tests that require problem-solving.

Next, students analyze a collection of terms frequently used in testing to determine the cognitive level of the information solicited. The guide words are reviewed as a way of using an old test to estimate the kinds of information and strategies to be used in test preparation. Discussion of the terms and the reading of examples from old tests demonstrates to students that few questions elicit knowledge level information; most require summaries to be available for recall. Several tests from differing subject areas are analyzed, including three biology tests from an introductory course for non-majors, an introductory course for biology majors, and a pre-professional zoology course. Test items are compared to show the increasing difficulty; the zoology test, for instance, required comparisons and relationships between similar body functions. Students reviewed use of left margin topic indicators to pose questions for themselves which were similar in form to those expected on tests.

The final examination preparation classes emphasize essay tests. Several sample questions were read and discussed in class, with observation of the cognitive level of questions. Students were shown techniques for outlining an answer, formulating a thesis sentence, and providing transitional guides to the reader. As assignments, students analyze their own tests for content and cognitive level of questions, then write several sample questions of multiple choice and short answer types. A final exercise is to bring an essay question to class and write the answer in class.

SUMMARY

The guided study skills system prepares students for analysis and synthesis tasks by providing practice in note-taking and reading at the comprehension level. Hopefully, as students learn to identify what is important in their reading, and can organize and record that information in a manner allowing comprehension-level review, students will have a more active orientation toward learning, and will have the skills needed for the exercise of judgment which is a goal for college graduates.

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USES OF VIDEO-TAPE RECORDINGS IN A LEARNING SKILLS CENTER

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A Video recorder (VTR), a monitor (television set) and a video camera, which can be purchased for a modest sum of money, provide a unique resource for a Learning Center. One person involved in an interaction with others cannot be consciously aware of all that is occurring because one's attention cannot be everywhere at once. The camera can preserve the action for inspection later. In the Learning Skills Center at UCLA we have found this equipment especially appropriate for our approaches to learning enrichment.

A COUNSELING-ORIENTED LEARNING CENTER

The Learning Skills Center at UCLA has used a counseling approach, rather than tutorial or didactic, in its direct service to students. The counseling approach means providing an environment in which the student seeks to find why he is experiencing difficulty in a study-learning situation. The counselor's role is to listen to the student's problem as it is stated and to elicit a possible solution to the problem from the student.The counselor seeks to make the student aware of the many options he has. The objective is to guide the student to change his behavior and attitude to reach his own objective — whether it is to get higher grades or to maintain already high grades with less expenditure of time and energy. The achievement of this complex task is more likely if one considers the student as a whole, helping him to recognize that causes of his immediate problem may be coming from areas of his life he had not considered germane to the felt need or problem at the moment.

When the student gets an insight about the nature of his own problem he can begin to solve it, or at least state a possible solution and outline a set of behaviors or actions that will lead to a resolution of the problem. This

recognition of problem and solution, of course, is at the intellectual level. Alas, emotion, feeling states, and that thing we call "motivation" may not have been appreciably altered in early counseling appointments or in brief workshop or seminar experiences — even those in the form of "task-oriented" counseling sessions.

COUNSELORS, VTR, AND SELF-EVALUATION

The counselors in the Learning Skills Center have varied educational backgrounds, personalities and styles of counseling. The range of academic, professional, and personal experience is unusually wide. Areas of specialization include 19 academic majors and teaching experiences from nursery school to graduate school, including adult education.

The reaction of the staff when the video camera joined the cast of characters was, thus predictably, varied. Some called it a monster. Some looked on it with disdain, considering it just another audio-visual machine to be locked up, worried about, and repaired when necessary. But, worst of all, if it were used effectively it might replace the staff! However, on some afternoons at 4:30, we have often wished we had captured our fine early morning "performance" for replay. So we set out to find ways to employ the new equipment with a minimum of space, lighting, and photographic expertise.

When we used video to record the staff's performance, we found it revealed many things, some good and some not-so-good. To evaluate a performance in a balanced way, teams of two or more counselors were helpful. They can be more objective and more supportive with each other in the task of self-evaluation and in the manipulation of equipment.

The confrontation with a video camera is analogous to looking into a peculiar magic mirror. Yet it is no mirror reflection. The scene becomes reduced in size, black-and-white, two dimensional, very different from live, full scale, three-dimensional color. It is noisier than a projected hologram. It provides an experience which enables one to observe one's self from the outside perhaps for the first time. It is a potent experience usually preceded by a sense of impending danger.

But the feelings produced are rarely as unpleasant as expected. Frequently one gains a new respect and hope for one's ability to communicate more effectively. There can even be a comfortable acceptance of one's self with the flaws, foibles, and other slight imperfections of human beings. Of the uses of video equipment listed, my experience has been primarily in teacher self-evaluation, oral report practice, professional school admission-interview role-playing, and role-playing for assertiveness.

VTR FOR ANXIETY REDUCTION

The specific use of video recording that has held my interest longest does not appear in any one of the standard categories. This is the use of video tape recording to reduce anxiety levels in situations that require the expression of

one's own ideas in speech and writing. The anxiety is frequently characterized by sweating palms, shaking knees, trembling in various parts of the body, blood rushing to the surface of the body to produce a flushing of the skin, and perhaps the awareness of less blood in the brain or viscera. The condition may be called "stage fright" or "butterflies in the stomach" by professional performers. These are considered desirable for a good performance in the theatre, but when the feelings and physiological responses become so strong that they do not enhance one's performance in real life they are a negative response that needs to be extinguished or reduced. But, even more important, I see this anxiety-reduction process as one way to approach the well-springs of motivation in students. If we can make the person more comfortable when he is reading, studying, speaking, or writing he will be likely to do more of these activities and likely to be a more effective communicator.

If he is successful in expressing his ideas, and if these ideas, therefore, are more clearly understood, others are more likely to appreciate and respond to whatever he is communicating. If appreciation is expressed, verbally or non-verbally, such positive feedback can enhance self-esteem and start a more positive cycle of events.

VTR IN SMALL GROUPS

The video camera assists people to follow the Socratic injunction to "Know Thyself" or to grant Robert Burns' wish "to see ourselves as others see us." We have employed it most frequently with groups of 6-12 students, meeting 2 hours a week for 6 to 8 sessions, with two counselors. Advertisements in the *Daily Bruin* announce the workshops and those students responding are told that the focus will be on alleviating the anxiety they may experience in oral communication, and not to teach perfect English diction, or professional public speaking techniques. Typical initial complaints of those enrolling are, "I speak too fast," "I want to get rid of my accent," "I'm too uncomfortable to recite in class," or "I'm afraid to start a conversation with a boy/girl."

The video recorder is used in early sessions to allow students to become familiar with their image and the sound of their voices. After some progress is observed in reaching the goal they set for themselves, they rely less and less on video and talk with each other and the counselors to explore why they speak in the ways they do, and why they feel the ways they do. Deeper-level feelings are revealed in later sessions; even in the second meeting students will recognize and frequently express their dissatisfactions or satisfactions with their performance.

The resolution of each person's problem, of course, is achieved in a different way. Essentially each person becomes more at ease and less negatively critical of his behavior after he observes his behavior on the VTR, and receives feedback from others. When the discrepancy between the ideal and actual performance is reduced, he feels more at ease and freer to experiment with other styles of expression. It is also possible to make further improvement in delivery.

DYNAMICS AFTER VTR

Social anxiety, distress, and the fear of negative evaluation may be altered more by discussion and verbal interaction with counselors and peers after some measure of self-acceptance is acquired. When the dynamics within most members of the group move to this point, the VTR is used less frequently. Discrepancies between the three kinds of self-images well may be defined as the 1) actual self ('as I am now'); 2) the ideal self ('as I should be'); and the 3) social self ('I as others see me') are difficult to recognize and to measure. But there is a correlation between the amount of tension experienced and the degree of discrepancy between each of these self-images within each of us. When this discrepancy is reduced, the feeling of social ease increases. The sense of relief, or feeling of ease, can come quickly or slowly. The change can be visible to all when a "breakthrough" occurs, or be invisible. Evidence of this change can be recorded on the VTR, examined, and measured: or it can be assessed by interviews, self-rating scales, and questionnaires.

Figure 1: Rating Scales
SPEECH AWARENESS WORKSHOPS

Please rank the following goals in the order of importance for you:

1. To increase self-awareness in how one presents oneself in speaking situations. _____
2. To gain speaking experience. _____
3. To receive feedback from other participants. _____
4. To gain greater self-acceptance. _____
5. To feel greater ease/comfort in expressing oneself orally. _____
6. To lessen speaking inhibitions. _____
7. To clarify expectations of what is involved in being a TA (expectations of self and listeners). _____
8. To feel more willing to experiment to develop your own speaking style. _____
9. List and rank any other goals you may have. _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

For purposes of evaluation may we have your name and address to send you a short inquiry later? We think this will be useful because some of the goals listed above require time to be realized. Thank you.

Figure 2: Rating Scales
SPEECH AWARENESS WORKSHOPS

Please rate the following goals according to the degree of change which occurred for you on a scale of 0 (least) to 10 (greatest).

1. To increase self-awareness in how one presents oneself in speaking situations. _____
2. To gain speaking experience. _____
3. To receive feedback from other participants. _____
4. To gain greater self-acceptance. _____
5. To feel greater ease/comfort in expressing oneself orally. _____
6. To lessen speaking inhibitions. _____
7. To clarify expectations of what is involved in being a TA (expectations of self and listeners). _____
8. To feel more willing to experiment to develop your own speaking style. _____

Please comment on the experience from this distance in time.

Figure 3: Rating Scales
SPEECH AWARENESS WORKSHOPS

Rank current needs in order of importance to you now.

Please rate the following goals according to the degree of change which occurred for you on a scale of 0 (least) to 10 (greatest).

_____ 1. To increase self-awareness in how one presents oneself in speaking situations. _____

_____ 2. To gain speaking experience. _____

_____ 3. To receive feedback from other participants. _____

_____ 4. To gain greater self-acceptance. _____

_____ 5. To feel greater ease/comfort in expressing oneself orally. _____

_____ 6. To lessen speaking inhibitions. _____

_____ 7. To clarify expectations of what is involved in being a TA (expectations of self and listeners). _____

_____ 8. To feel more willing to experiment to develop your own speaking style. _____

Please comment on the experience from this distance in time.

A Specific Case:

One anecdote springs to mind that illustrates the relation between anxiety and self-image. When actual and ideal self-images can be expressed and compared, anxiety can often be dissipated entirely. A doctoral candidate in the Department of Geography, a diminutive, fragile-appearing Oriental woman, had been asked to serve as a teaching assistant. She was anxious about taking the position because she feared the students would not pay attention to her. She could not understand her own anxiety. She participated in a Speech Awareness Group, and on the last day she still expressed concern about her performance in the classroom. I asked her, "Margaret, how would you describe a good geography professor?"

She smiled and said, "Why a man who —"

I interrupted to complete her sentence, "is large, perhaps wooly with a beard, speaks in a loud bass voice?" She nodded. "Then" I continued, "I am not surprised that you are uncomfortable at the thought of playing a role you imagine can be done well only by persons who look and sound like that, since you are the opposite in appearance and behavior. You have told us that in your family and culture women are respected for their self-effacement. There is a perfect double-bind that can create tension. What do you think? Can this be true for you? Are you comfortable yet with the idea of being called Dr. Loy?"

Her face lighted with a smile, she drew a deep breath. She appeared more buoyant physically, as she said, "I hadn't thought of that. I think it may be true." She departed and later the head TA in the Geography Department told me that she had not stopped praising the whole experience with the group, and that she was indeed enjoying her teaching duties.

VTR AND WRITING SKILLS COUNSELING

A black graduate student in the Department of History had experienced great difficulty in his academic writing skills throughout his undergraduate years and in his Master's program. He was now a doctoral candidate. He had struggled mightily to improve at each step of the way. Many counselors had worked with him until there was small hope he would improve markedly. The breakthrough came for him when a counselor decided to test the power of the VTR. For two hours he recorded the reading of his own paper, and for two more hours he listened. He left convinced he had something to say that was worthwhile. He accepted several speaking engagements. They were successful. He discovered that in his writing he had been making false assumptions about what the reader knew, he was doing circular thinking and had been unable, to this time, to fit his thinking into a formal pattern of academic writing. He went away to write his dissertation without further assistance. One of his comments was, "I don't sound and look as bad as I thought."

In a Learning Skills Center with a small budget for audio-visual equipment the videotape recorder is a good investment. It is an extra tool to implement a primary task of a learning counselor.

SOME USES OF VIDEO-TAPE RECORDING IN A LEARNING SKILLS CENTER

1. Teacher Self Evaluation. One can discover and analyze behaviors and examine the effects of these on student-learning. For examples of non-productive behaviors, consider needless repetition, automatic rather than sincere praise, insufficient wait-time for well-thought-out answers, or the fixation of questions below the level that promotes the development of conceptual abilities, analytical techniques, and synthesis of ideas. Awareness of these habits can lead to change. (1,4)
2. Taping sessions between counselors and troubled and alienated students. To help teachers learn how counselors handle student problems.
3. Observing teacher and student role-playing in the classroom.
4. Recording oral reports, drama and speech rehearsals to improve final performance.
5. Recording shop lessons, laboratory experiments or demonstrations for use of absent students.
6. Taping teacher demonstrations and student interaction to give parents or the PTA a "bird's eye view of the classroom."
7. Foreign language speaking practice.
8. Capturing valuable lectures and appearances of guest speakers.
9. Job interview role-playing.
10. Graduate and professional school interview role practice.
11. Interviews regarding research and grant proposals.
12. Assertion training role-playing.

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THE STUDY TABLE AND PANIC CLINIC

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Any large, urban university with a total enrollment of 28,000 students, a faculty of 2,000 instructors, Bachelors Degrees offered in 47 subjects, Masters Degrees awarded in 35 fields, and an area of 350 acres in Los Angeles might invoke an image of indifference and, even, heartlessness. California State University, Northridge is no exception. Most of its students are commuters, driving distances up to 170 miles to attend classes; only 3,555 students live in Northridge. That CSUN is prone to "institutionalitis" is underscored by one recommendation included in the *President's Commission Report on Educational Development, 1972-1982* which suggests special landscaping effects encouraging students to congregate in small, friendly groups (7:33). Each semester, students face the tense week of final examinations. Two-hour, comprehensive final exams, which often determine the course grade, are required in each class in addition to possible final papers and projects. Personal circumstances range from students applying to graduate programs which have minimum GPA entry requirements to students struggling to avoid disqualification or defending scholarships necessary to complete their college degrees. One half of the clients requesting learning skills assistance in the Learning Resource Center are diagnosed as lacking in testmanship — independent of their academic performance (3). Student complaints surrounding Finals Week include lack of suitable study space at home, where there is no desk reserved for college study, and time-consuming distances to drive: at an apartment where there might be friends not enrolled in school or not sharing similar final exams schedules; or at the library, where there might be contagious tension in packed carrels or library hours incompatible with a student's work schedule. Added together, then, these factors set the stage for certain revolution.

RATIONALE

The Study Table and Panic Clinic was designed to confront these problems. Although no program like the Study Table and Panic Clinic was found described in the WCRA *Proceedings*, NRC *Yearbooks*, ERIC, or the Student Personnel Journals, some basis for the project is reported in the professional literature. These studies include David Wark's work, based on Joseph Wolpe and Edwin Jacobson's research, defining test panic (9:1), exploring the role of relaxation in reducing anxiety (9:3), and showing the necessity for test anxiety reduction to maintain reading or studying and often to score higher on the exam (9:2). Other research investigates the benefits of pairing study skills counseling with test anxiety desensitization (5), and the possible advantages of desensitization over study skills counseling (4) (6). Three surveys indicate students' preference for studying in the same room or apartment with a roommate who is also studying and for the relaxed atmosphere of studying at home, but also for the convenience of extended library hours and of readily available reference materials (1) (2) (3:271).

Responding to CSUN student needs and reflecting the research, the Study Table and Panic Clinic combines the advantages of studying at home and the advantages of studying at the library and adds professional and paraprofessional help to remedy test panic. More specifically, the program was designed with four objectives in mind: (1) to relieve test anxiety and treat test-anxious students; (2) to provide a relaxed atmosphere for final exams study where services needed by students are located close to their study area; (3) to increase students' chances for successfully completing their final exams and final projects, and finally (4) to unify traditionally disparate campus agencies for a strictly student-oriented project.

The Study Table and Panic Clinic represents a *total* final exams treatment. Located in the Learning Resource Center in the South Library, and open 24 hours a day from the weekend before final exams begin to the last scheduled exam day, the Study Table and Panic Clinic is manned by doctors, nurses, counselors, instructors, academic tutors, learning skills facilitators, sign language interpreters, and Student Health Center staff. Virtually all the resource people students studying for finals might need are brought together and are available during this continuous clinic. The atmosphere is one of caring and teamwork.

The program offers the student under pressure people to talk to who will answer questions or help find answers. An ombudsman service is a crucial component of the Study Table and Panic Clinic especially because classes are no longer in session and instructors do not hold regular office hours during Finals Week. Special activities, scheduled as study breaks during the week, include seminars on test-taking, on anxiety reduction, and on coping with family demands during final exams. At the Study Table and Panic Clinic, the student finds an array of services: space to study, LRC self-instructional materials, typewriters, learning skills assistance, content area tutoring, and

personal counseling as well as emergency health care, anxiety-relieving snacks, complimentary coffee, and, even room to unroll his or her sleeping bag and nap!

ORGANIZATION AND STAFFING

Indicative of its pluralistic thrust, the Study Table and Panic Clinic is sponsored jointly by the Associated Students, the Counseling Center, the Learning Resource Center, the Student Health Center, and the University Libraries. Representatives from these campus agencies meet the month before Finals Week to divide the following responsibilities: securing funds, contacting participants, coordinating staff coverage, publicizing, obtaining snacks and supplies, and designing evaluation for the program. Throughout the month, the sponsors report on progress in implementing the project.

The Study Table and Panic Clinic is actively supported by ten academic departments in addition to five sponsoring campus agencies plus volunteer efforts from the University Police and Custodial Services. The Learning Resource Center and the Student Health Center insure staffing for the Study Table and Panic Clinic with at least one professional and one paraprofessional present at all times. A grid of scheduled tutors, counselors, and physicians is printed, posted, and distributed on campus 10 days prior to Finals Week. This plan circumvents crises since not all subject area tutoring could possibly be available all the hours the Study Table and Panic Clinic is operational. Many tutors and instructors contribute non-scheduled hours; the published schedule provides a skeleton of available assistance.

BUDGET

Oddly, the cost to the Learning Resource Center for the Study Table and Panic Clinic runs no more than any average week of operation. Learning Resource Center assistants and learning skills facilitators stagger their hours to allow for 24 hour coverage. Many volunteer additional hours as do the Student Health Center staff and academic tutors. However, some student associations, such as the Business Club, provide funds for their tutors. Faculty members and graduate assistants help facilitate exam study, answer questions, and supervise small group study sessions. Counselors receive compensatory time from the Counseling Center for any evening or weekend hours they contribute. The University Reading Clinic and the English Department Writing Lab, both located in the Learning Resource Center, although previously closed during Finals Week, now continue to maintain their regular weekly hours.

Both the Dean of Students' office and the Dean of the University's office contribute $250 each to staff the library during the week of continuous operation. The Director of University Libraries' office assumes the cost of operating the South Library around the clock. Associated Students allocate $500 for the week's complimentary coffee, snacks, and paper supplies. During hours the campus food service is closed, the campus cafeteria and several

Northridge businesses send the Study Table and Panic Clinic contributions which range from submarine sandwiches to freshly baked pies.

PROBLEMS

During the three semesters the Study Table and Panic Clinic has been operational, several problems have surfaced. One problem was publicity. The first semester, generous media coverage brought non-CSUN students to campus and also brought administrative frowns that the program might be misinterpreted as a result of panic-producing professors. Newspaper titles characteristically read: "CSUN Panic Clinic Cools Finals Fever" and "Epidemic of Finals Fever Expected at CSUN Campus." The program and its unpopular title received publicity from the local and city newspapers, five radio stations, and national television. Yet, when the publicity was limited to on-campus sources the second semester, the total number of students dropped only slightly.

A second problem was food. Overwhelmingly charitable contributions of complete meals led to both aesthetic nightmares and accusations that the students would not attend the Study Table and Panic Clinic if snacks were not provided. When snacks were discontinued the next semester, the total head count for the week remained over five thousand, and the estimated number of individual students stayed at two thousand. The third semester, then, complimentary nourishment was limited to hand-held snacks, such as apples, oranges, cheese, peanut butter crackers and cookies. Baloney sandwiches were not altogether reluctantly sacrificed.

Student evaluations voiced a third problem: not enough of a good thing. Therefore, the program was extended from five to seven days, in order to include the weekend before Finals Week. Student usage during the extra days justified the change.

Including many participants in the program who were unfamiliar with the LRC while eliminating the usual focal point in the LRC ecology led to some confusion. Students and tutors missed making connections; an instructor volunteering his time sat in an LRC corner unrecognized and, consequently, unutilized, all evening. Large signs posting subject areas and name tags distributed to all participants provided a roving structure.

Less easily solved problems involve the energy required for a project of this dimension. Although five sponsors share responsibilities for the program, the coordinating campus agency tends to burn out after two or three semesters. The Study Table and Panic Clinic is certainly a program ill-suited to the quarter system! Another problem remaining is those individuals on campus opposing the project because the Study Table and Panic Clinic, if not encouraging cramming, does give official sanction to last minute efforts. As yet, this opposition has not taken any active form.

EVALUATION

Evaluation of the Study Table and Panic Clinic is purposely minimal to avoid unduly hassling students preparing for final exams. Three measures are utilized: hourly head counts are taken in the Learning Resource Center, an hourly utilization survey is conducted, and open-ended student evaluations are distributed the last two days of the Study Table and Panic Clinic. Hourly head counts indicated that student usage ranged from 40 to 150 students studying in the LRC at any one time, Fall, 1974; from 1 to 120, Spring, 1975; and from 2 to 114, Fall, 1975. The daytime average was 50 and the nighttime average was 35 for the three semesters. Between 2,000 and 3,000 individual students visited the program during the week.

Student surveys show that the reason most frequently given for visiting the Study Table and Panic Clinic is because it is an informal place to study. Based on 842 students surveyed during the three semesters of the program, 68.8% stated they attended the Study Table and Panic Clinic because "it's a good place to study," "has a relaxed atmosphere," and they wanted "to be with other students studying." Coffee and snacks rated second in frequency (13.9%) and tutoring ranked third (8.4%). The variety of reasons for attending the Study Table and Panic Clinic range from requests for counseling about anticipated poor grades to petitions for tutoring in chemistry, and consequently the surveys reflect a high percentage of "Other" (5.7%).

In the 155 evaluations filled out, the ratio of positive comments to suggestions for improvement (students tend to cross out "negative" and substitute "suggestions") was three to one. Most appreciated was the library's extended hours, the complimentary coffee, the tutoring available, the Study Table and Panic Clinic attitude, and the concept itself. Most suggestions centered on extending the program to the week before Finals Week, increasing publicity for the tutoring and counseling, and expanding tutoring. One succinct student endorsement read, "Made the grade."

CONCLUSION

On a large, urban university campus, where only a fraction of students reside close to school, where there is no student center, or university-owned dormitories, the Study Table and Panic Clinic is as inevitable as it is revolutionary. According to the subjective student evaluations and the student surveys, the program is meeting its first three objectives. The number of departments and agencies supporting the Study Table and Panic Clinic show that the fourth objective is being met. In addition, the Study Table and Panic Clinic continues quietly as an insurrectionary force on campus; CSUN has gone on record as one university ready to fight "institutionalitis."

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AN INFORMATION RETRIEVAL SYSTEM FOR LEARNING SKILLS MATERIALS

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The Learning Skills Center at Mountain View College grew out of a proposal written during the spring of 1975 for an individualized lab in writing and reading skills. The original proposal was the joint creation of two college divisions: Communications and Developmental Studies. Instructors from both areas had requested a lab to provide skills instruction to supplement their courses. It was also felt that learning skills instruction would appeal to Mountain View students in general. Though the LSC was to be administered separately from either division, both were to provide the staff for the LSC (two from Developmental Studies, five from Communications).

The proposal provided for furniture, equipment, and materials to be acquired through the institutional budget. Other materials were sought through special funding sources. Participation in the LSC's programs was to be through enrollment in a one-hour course thus allowing students to receive credit for their efforts at self-improvement as well as providing the primary source of income for the LSC.

The proposal was approved late in the spring of 1975, and I was hired to make plans for opening of the Learning Skills Center the following Spring. Soon after I reported for work in the fall, materials began to arrive. As the stacks grew, it became increasingly obvious that some method had to be found to make the contents of these new and expensive materials accessible to the LSC's instructors.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CATALOG FORM

A major breakthrough in devising a method to catalog this material occurred during a visit with my former collegues of U.T. Austin's Reading

and Study Skills Laboratory (RASSL). There I learned of the existence of a form for cataloging new acquisitions.

Clutching a copy of the RASSL form, I returned to Mountain View to adapt the catalog form to a computer-based information retrieval system. The RASSL form contained helpful categories for describing the contents of reading and study skills materials. It also had a checklist of instructional modes, features and audience appeals which would give a quick idea of how the materials could be used. The RASSL form, however, did not have categories for writing skills.

To develop descriptive categories in writing, I first developed one list of topics from the tables of contents of several of our new writing materials. Next I asked two English teachers who would be using the completed form to make suggestions and revisions. Finally, a particularly comprehensive text in writing was cataloged, and categories were created where omissions were discovered. Throughout the revision process, an effort was made to keep information accessible to English teachers who would be using the results.

For the content areas of reading, writing, and study skills, the form was designed so that the catalogers' job would be to enter the page numbers from the materials beside the relevant category. The last section of the form dealt with characteristics of the materials which could be checked if present or left black if absent. The areas covered by this checklist included method of presentation, media used, auxiliary features (such as tests, answer keys, manuals), readability, audience appeals, and items from a Cognitive Style Map.

Cognitive Style Mapping is a technique developed by Joseph E. Hill of Oakland Community College for discerning the ways in which a person searches for meaning. The map identifies preferred modes of instruction as well as the cultural influences and methods of reasoning which play a part in learning. Since many Mountain View faculty are familiar with the mapping procedure and use it with their students, it seemed desirable to incorporate this tool into the system. To avoid creating a whole list of new terms, the nomenclature from the map was used on the catalog form, but a gloss was developed to assist catalogers in making the translations into questions of instructional style. In this way, it was hoped that the catalog would provide an "instructional style map" of the LSC's holdings to allow closer matching of materials with the individual learner's style.

When the actual process of cataloging began, numerous small difficulties were discovered with the form. Some of these could be corrected at once by the addition of categories. In other cases, the absence of a perfect category for a particular topic had to be resolved by deciding to enter it in the best available place and hoping that we'd remember where we put it.

An internal grant had been secured which allowed for the payment of $5 per title to those cataloging. The sum certainly did not act as an incentive to catalog, but it did have a mildly consoling effect on those who did participate.

The primary group of catalogers was comprised of those who would be teaching in the LSC in the spring.

There were two reasons for asking professionals to do the cataloging. Participating in the process of cataloging seemed a desirable way to train staff to use the system. Further, the act of cataloging provides a way to become acquainted with materials.

THE COMPUTER-BASED RETRIEVAL SYSTEM

When a final draft of the catalog form had been developed, I met with the campus computer programmer and resource consultants. They suggested a coding system for the categories and wrote the necessary program. Once a catalog form had been completed by the instructor, the information was typed into the computer. The process involved merely typing the page numbers after the relevant category code and indicating the presence of a check mark in the latter part of the form, plus typing in the identifying information such as title, author, publisher. The program, written in APL, allows one to call up titles with page numbers for any category entry or for a combination of entries. For example, it is possible to get answers to questions such as, "What does the LSC have on using context clues to improve vocabulary?" or even, "What do we have for a student who has problems with verb tense and who learns best by listening and who cannot tolerate working in association with others?" Questions such as these are asked simply as a combination of category codes. There is, thankfully, very little computer expertise necessary for using the program.

Early in the spring semester, most of the cataloging was complete, and the completed forms had been typed into the computer. After a series of malfunctions of the computer, we finally secured a print out showing the entries for each of the categories in reading, writing, and study skills. A very simple form was distributed to instructors for requesting the more complicated, multiple-variable output.

EVALUATION OF THE INFORMATION RETRIEVAL SYSTEM

Though the Informal Retrieval System has not yet been in use for a full semester, some observations can be made.

The process of cataloging proved generally successful. As predicted, those who cataloged gained considerable information about the range and content of materials they worked with, and later they could make more confident recommendations.

The process of cataloging also produced an unpredicted benefit. Since the task of the Learning Skills Center was to provide supplementary rather than global instruction, the focus on specific skills helped many instructors clarify the difference between their classroom teaching and that required in the LSC.

The computer-based retrieval system for the cataloged information has

not yet received heavy use. The computer's down time occurred just at the crucial point when instructors would have been interested in using the system. Instead, instructors were forced to locate materials by asking for a recommendation or browsing through the shelves. Furthermore, the total newness of the LSC may have made the information retrieval system seem just one innovation too many. The computer-generated list of entries does receive almost daily use, primarily in response to requests for unusual information or in cases where the favored material is temporarily unavailable.

The information retrieval system will, I believe, receive greater use in the future. It provides evidence which can be used conveniently to evaluate the adequacy of the LSC's holdings in various skill areas. Though initially the cataloged materials were not evaluated prior to their use with students, in future semesters comments about materials will be gathered from instructors and students and could be added to the catalog form. In this way the system can provide information about the utility of materials.

Certainly the system will be useful in training new staff. The existence of the system will make pre-service workshops on the materials in the LSC more effective because instructors can use it to preview materials on key topics before they actually start working with students. Where a diversity of instructional modes is available on a single topic, instructors can develop increased sensitivity to the way in which the learner's style can be supported through choice of materials.

The catalog also may prove a useful tool in orienting other faculty to the Learning Skills Center. Some faculty may use it to sharpen their referrals into more specific assignments. Others may merely be curious to know how reading or writing problems are approached. The materials catalog may prove useful as a resource for classroom instruction. Those seeking new ways to present information or attempting to develop study skills packages for their own disciplines will be encouraged to use the LSC's system to aid in their efforts.

Though this information retrieval system was primarily designed as an aid in a new situation, the concept of cataloging learning skills materials may prove just as useful in established centers interested in increasing their accessibility to students, staff and general faculty.

Mechanics

Commas

After Intro. Phrase/Clause (3B1) _____

Between Independent Clauses (3B2) _____

General (3B3) _____

Run-Ons (3B4) _____

Apostrophe

In Possessives (3B5) _____

In Contractions (3B6) _____

Other (3B7) _____

Semicolon (3B8) _____

Capitalization (3B9) _____

Quotation Marks (3B10) _____

Italics, Underlining (3B11) _____

Abbreviation (3B12) _____

Terminal Punctuation (3B13) _____

Parenthesis, Brackets (3B14) _____

Ellipsis (see also bibl. in term papers) (3B15) _____

Dash (3B16) _____

Colon (3B17) _____

Style

Coordination (3C0) _____

Sentence Variety (3C1) _____

Subordination (3C2) _____

Parallel Structure (3C3) _____

Periodic Sentences (3C4) _____

Diction

Levels of Usage (3C5) _____

Confused Pairs (3C6) _____

Precision/Brevity (3C7) _____

Audience (point of view in composition) (3C8) _____

Logic (3C9) _____

Paragraph Structure

Sets/Levels of Abstraction (3D1) _____

Unity (3D2) _____

Coherence (3D3) _____

Topic Sentences (3D4) _____

Modes of Development (3D5) _____

Introductions (3D6) _____

Transition (3D7) _____

Conclusions (3D8) _____

Themes and Term Papers

Establishing Purpose/Aim (3E1) _____

Choosing/Limiting Topics (3E2) _____

Collecting Data (3E3) _____

Organizing Data (3E4) _____

Outlining (3E5) _____

Editing (3E6) _____

Bibliographic Forms (3E7) _____

Business Communications

Technical Style (3F1) _____

Technical Usage (3F2) _____

Report Writing (3F3) _____

Proposal Writing (3F4) _____

Oral Presentations (3F5) _____

Business Letters (3F6) _____

Memos (3F7) _____

Criticism

Poetry (3G1) _____

Short Stories (3G2) _____

Drama (3G3) _____

Novels (3G4) _____

Films (3G5) _____

General Critical Theory (3G6) _____

Creative Writing (3H) _____

Spelling

General (3I1) _____

Ie/ei Rule (3I2) _____

Silent e Plus Suffix (3I3) _____

Final y and Suffixes (3I4) _____

Forming Regular Plurals (3I5) _____

Suffixes After Final Consonants (3I6) _____

Word Parts (3I7) _____

Mnemonic Devices (3I8) _____

Hyphenation (3I9) _____

Demons (3I10) _____

4. Description of Material: Check those which apply

Method of Presentation

Programmed

23

Branched (4A1) _____

Standard (linear) (4A3) _____

Exposition (4A3) _____

Handbook/Reference (4A4) _____

Increasing Difficulty (4A5) _____

Entry at any Point (4A6) _____

Tone

Formal (4A7) _____

Informal (4A8) _____

Mode of Instruction

Print (4B1) _____

Audio Tape (4B2) _____

Phono. Record (4B3) _____

Motion Picture

Silent (4B4) _____

Sound (4B5) _____

Video Tape (4B6) _____

Filmstrip (4B7) _____

Slides (4B8) _____

Graphics (4B9) _____

Other (4B10) _____

Auxiliary Elements

Diagnostic/Prescriptive Tests (4C1) _____

General Pre-, Post Tests (4C2) _____

Progress Tests (4C3) _____

Practice Exercises (4C4) _____

Index (4C5) _____

Glossary (4C6) _____

Timed Exercises (4C7) _____

Rate Tables (4C8) _____

Teacher's Manual (4C9) _____

Answers Provided (4C10) _____

Readability

Hard (4D1) _____

Medium (4D2) _____

Easy (4D3) _____

Audience Appeals

Blacks (4E1) _____

Chicanos (4E2) _____

Native Americans (4E3) _____

Caucasian (4E4) _____

Other Ethnic (4E5) _____

Women (4E6) _____

Men (4E7) _____

Mature Students (4E8) _____

Veterans (4E9) _____

17-19 yr.-olds (4E10) _____

General Appeal (4E11) _____

Contents Easily Dated (4E12) _____

Teaching Modality

Oral Language (4F1) _____

Oral Non-Language (4F2) _____

Visual Language (4F3) _____

Visual Non-Language (4F4) _____

Significant Sensory Attraction

Auditory (4G1) _____

Olfactory (4G2) _____

Savory (4G3) _____

Tactile (4G4) _____

Visual (4G5) _____

Significant Sensory Distraction

Auditory (4H1) _____

Olfactory (4H2) _____

Savory (4H3) _____

Tactile (4H4) _____

Visual (4H5) _____

Requires/Appeals to these abilities:

Proprioception (4I1) _____

Empathy (4I2) _____

Esthetics (4I3) _____

Ethics (4I4) _____

Histrionics (4I5) _____

Kinesics (4I6) _____

Kinesthetics (4I7) _____

Proxemics (4I8) _____

Synoetics (4I9) _____

Time Management (4I10) _____

Instructional Goals Reached Through

Independence (4J1) _____

Association with others (4J2) _____

Acceptance of Authority (4J3) _____

Logical Style

Categorical (4K1) _____

Contrastive (4K2) _____

Synthesizing (4K3) _____

Appraisal Mixture of above (4K4) _____

Deductive (4K5) _____

Title _____ Reading Level _____

Author/Ed. _____ No. of Copies _____ Catalogued By: _____

Publisher _____ Date _____ Edition _____ Place Publ. _____ No. of Pages _____

TOPICS COVERED: Note the page numbers which deal with the following topics.
If entire book deals with the topic write, "all."

1. Study Skills
   - Orientation (1I) _____
   - Time Scheduling (1J) _____
   - Motivation (1K) _____
   - Concentration (1L) _____
   - List./Notes (1M) _____
   - Library Usage (1N) _____
   - Memory (1O) _____
   - Problem Solving (1P) _____
   - Text Study Systems (1Q) _____
   - Preparing for Tests (1R) _____
   - Objective Tests (1S) _____
   - Essay Tests (1T) _____

   Specific Study Areas
   - Science (1U) _____
   - Math (1V) _____
   - Social Science (1W) _____
   - Foreign Language (1X) _____
   - Literature (1Y) _____
   - Business (1Z) _____
   - Fine Arts (1AA) _____
   - Tech.-Gr. (1BB) _____

2. Reading Skills

   Word Attack
   - Phonics (2A1) _____
   - Syllabification (2A2) _____
   - Structural Analysis (2A3) _____
   - Sight Vocab. (2A4) _____

   Comprehension
   - Sentence Meaning (2B1) _____
   - Identify Main Ideas (2B2) _____
   - Identify Significant Facts (2B3) _____
   - Paragraph Structure (2B4) _____
   - Author's Purpose (2B5) _____
   - Critical Reading (Fact vs. opinion) (2B6) _____
   - Inference (2B7) _____

   Vocabulary
   - Context (2C1) _____
   - Word Parts
     - General (2C2) _____
     - Prefixes (2C3) _____
     - Roots (2C4) _____
     - Suffixes (2C5) _____
   - Etymology & Semantic Change (2C6) _____
   - Dictionary Usage (2C7) _____
   - Word Lists (2C8) _____
   - Pre-reading Vocab. (2C9) _____
   - Figurative Lang. (2C10) _____
   - Per Subj. Areas (2C11) _____

   Rate Improvement
   - Skimming (2D1) _____
   - Scanning (2D2) _____
   - Percept. Dev. (2D3) _____
   - Speed (2D4) _____

3. Writing Skills

   Grammar
   - Parts of Speech (3A1) _____
   - Subject, Verbs, Compliments (3A2) _____
   - Subject-Verb Agr. (3A3) _____
   - Noun Plurals (3A4) _____
   - Noun Possessives (3A5) _____
   - Verb Tense (3A6) _____
   - Pronouns (3A7) _____
   - Modifiers (3A8) _____
   - Clauses (3A9) _____
   - Phrases (3A10) _____
   - Fragments (3A11) _____
   - Gerunds, Infinitives, Participles (3A12) _____

65

THE DESCRIPTION AND EVALUATION OF A LEARNING SKILLS WORKSHOP

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For the past two years Learning Skills Summer Workshops have been offered successfully at California State Unitersity, Northridge. Summer Workshops aren't new; Frank Christ (3), Tony Mathews (5), and Guy Smith (7) are among those who have run workshops to help students sharpen their learning skills. The purposes of this paper are to describe the workshop held in August, 1975, as well as its participants, and to discuss data gathered during, at the end of, and one semester after the Workshop.

DESCRIPTION

The Learning Skills Summer Workshop was sponsored by the School of Education and the Learning Resource Center and held in the Learning Resource Center. The LRC's Reading Lab, part of the School of Secondary Education, was open for workshop use as well.

Two workshops were held, each lasting ten days. Each day the students met for four hours; two hours working individually, one hour working with the group as a whole, and one hour working in small groups.

Of the 84 students enrolled in the Workshop, information was available on 74 of them. Of the 74, eight were college re-entry students, eight were junior college transfers, eight were unidentified, and 50 were entering CSUN freshmen. These 50 students are the group for this study. As a group, the 50 had above average GPA's (2.51) and average SAT scores compared to both the CSUN freshmen and the national norms.

The personnel in the workshop included one director, one reading specialist, one materials and study skills specialist, a clerical staff of two, and nine small group leaders (six leaders for the first session and three for the

second session). Eight of the group leaders were in the workshop earning credit toward either Educational Psychology or Reading Credential degrees. The ninth leader had the dual role of materials and study skills specialist on the workshop staff.

In an attempt to better prepare these students for college, the workshop personnel exposed them to a variety of activities and skills. The activities included a registration preview designed to answer questions regarding that procedure. They were also given a tour of the library and bookstore, and encouraged to utilize both. As a guest speaker, a University professor answered their questions in an effort to quell their apprehensions. Participants in each of the two workshops also listened to a panel of students who had gone to the workshop the summer before, and spoke to their peers as both veterans of the workshop and of one year at college. Participants were also given a talk on "student life," regarding activities and benefits. They also worked on skills: developmental and study reading, listening and notetaking, time management, test-taking techniques and tips on essay writing.

The students used books, hand outs and tapes on their own — some were LRC innovated and some were standard software in the area of learning skills; materials developed by Frank Christ, Walter Pauk, Royce Adams and McGraw-Hill were among those in the latter category.

INSTRUMENTATION

Two weeks prior to the beginning of the workshop, each participant was mailed a packed containing a marked campus map, an Imaging Potential form, a Goals Statement form, a booklet and answer sheet for the Brown-Holtzman *Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes*, and a return envelope. They were instructed to return the Imaging Potential, the Goals Statement, and the *SSHA* prior to the workshop.

The Imaging Form contained brief directions for the participants to imagine that the Workshop was completed, and to write what they had learned and how they felt they were different. The Goals Statement Form asked the participants to briefly write three goals they personally wanted to accomplish during the Workshop. We sent the Goals Statement and Imaging Form to stimulate personal goal-setting, to know what participant expectations were, to see if responses to the two forms provided different information. The Brown-Holtzman *Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes*, Form C, was used to provide a framework for individual counseling in habits and attitudes.

On the first day of the workshop the *McGraw-Hill Basic Skills System Reading Test*, Form B, was administered. Besides having adequate psychometric qualities, this reading test was chosen because the several sub-test scores are useful when selecting reading improvement materials. Also administered on the first day of the workshop was Frank Christ's *Survey of Reading/Study Efficiency* (SR/SE). Purpose of the *SR/SE* was to assist in the selection of study improvement materials.

On the last day of the workshop, participants were requested to anonymously complete an End-of-Workshop Evaluation Form. The form consisted of two ranking tasks, and two written responses. Participants were to rank the large group presentations from the first and second weeks of the workshop in order of relevance for personal learning needs. The ordering of the first and second week presentations was repeated, using the criterion of interest. The free response items asked for opinions on the highlights of the workshop as well as comments on large group, small group, and individual study sessions.

All workshop participants who were CSUN freshmen were sent a "semester-later" evaluation form. The form consisted of eighteen items; five free response and thirteen Likert-type items with space for comments or suggestions. The format, and to some extent the content of the form, were adopted from Cambell (2).

RESULTS

Unless otherwise noted, all results discussed below were obtained from the 50 participants who were freshmen at CSUN beginning with the Fall 1975 semester. After performing a content analysis of the data from the Goals Statement and the Imaging Form we concluded that they produced similar results. A majority of the responses on both instruments were cognitive in nature, i.e., they dealt with improving study skills. Most remaining responses could be called an affective cluster which dealt with learning about and adjusting to university life. The differences between the responses to the instruments was that the affective responses occured with a much greater frequency on the Imaging Form, providing a more balanced impression of participant's goals and expectations. Unexpectedly, data from both instruments were found valuable for individual counseling.

Four of the seven sub-test mean scores on the Brown-Holtzman *SSHA* were at the 25th percentile. The others were at the 30th, 35th, and 40th percentiles. The *SSHA* would have been a poor predictor of academic success for the workshop freshmen, as their mean GPA after one semester at CSUN was 2.51 which compares favorably to the 2.54 mean for the entire Freshman class. The instrument did, however, provide a framework for individual counseling.

The mean sub-test scores on the McGraw-Hill Reading Test were all within the middle 40% of scorers compared to the four-year norms in the manual. The freshmen in the workshop are typical readers. The seven scores available from the reading test were very useful for the reading specialist and group counselors in aiding the students search for learning materials.

Since responses to the End-of-Workshop Evaluation were anonymous, the results reported here are from all participants who were present on the last day of each Workshop (n - 64). In ranking the activities and skills offered, four were consistantly appealing to the students: testbook reading, student life, the library tour, and test taking. The remaining six activities and skills were

consistently less appealing and should be reviewed for improvement.

In the first free response item, about one-half of the responses identified reading and study skills as the most important experiences. It is interesting that the highly-favored activities were different in the ranking exercises than in the first free response item. However, these different forms of instrumentation were measuring different attributes.

About 35% of the responses fell into a social or affective category much like responses on the Imaging Form. Included were statements such as being more confident about beginning college, adjusting easier, meeting new people, and getting to know the campus. About 16% of the responses fell into a general category about workshop operation, with most responses dealing with the manner of the staff, use of small groups or small group counselors. Overall, the results from this first free response item were in close agreement with the results from the Imaging Form. The participants seemed to have received from the workshop what they had expected.

The second free response item asked for "first impressions" of the small and large group sessions, as well as the individual study sessions. About 20% of the responses about these sessions were complaints (such as too much noise during study time), negative general remarks (such as the temperature of the room), no response, or neutral response. The 80% positive responses about the small group sessions were overwhelmingly social/affective in content, for example: the chance to meet others, a place to talk, the chance to say what they wouldn't say in a large group, the availability to express feelings, and likability of the group leader. General positive remarks accounted for 30% of the responses on the large groups, while most of the remaining responses were remarks such as, "informative," "interesting," and "helpful." For the remaining 80% of responses on individual study, 45% were general positive remarks, such as feeling they had increased their reading speed. The rest were neither positive nor negative, dealing with study skills and the materials used.

The semester-later evaluation form results represented data from 41 freshmen. Five items assessed the extent to which the main study skills learned in the workshop were applied during the semester. Typically, SQ3R was used by the student less than 25% of the time. By checking a five point scale that ranged "never," "rarely," "sometimes," "often," or "always," students indicated that on the average they applied workshop suggesitions on writing, notetaking, and time organization only sometimes. Suggestions on test taking were applied often. The study skills learned by the students made the greatest impact on the group as a whole.

Three items in the evaluation form were used by the freshmen to rate the helpfulness of eight workshop activities by checking, "no help," "little help," "helpful," or "very helpful." On the average, all eight activities were rated as helpful or very helpful. The activities included the small groups, reading and study assessment, registration preview, returning students panel, bookstore tour, library introduction, guest professor, and the "student life" talk.

In responding to items about reading improvement, the typical freshman

answered he or she spent a little less than an hour per day on reading improvement during the workshop, but felt that his reading skills had improved from little to moderately. Results also indicated that the student has probably not returned to the LRC's Reading Lab for more help. Since these freshmen as a group had above average reading scores and GPA's, the behavior described seems reasonable.

The freshmen have returned to the Learning Resource Center on an average of two to three times since the workshop. It is difficult to interpret these results at the present time. However, the information can be used as baseline data for future study. Correspondences between workshop students who return to a Learning Resource Center as opposed to a non-workshop student, could yield important results.

On the average, the students rated the workshop as helpful in preparing them to meet University demands. Seventy-one percent said that they would recommend the workshop to University-bound high school graduates.

The students were asked in a free response item what aspects of the workshop were the most valuable. A content analysis of the responses indicated that 13% were generally positive remarks about study skills; 15% dealt with notetaking; and 10% dealt with test taking. The affective cluster appeared again with 27% valuing learning about the campus and campus life. These responses are in agreement with the end-of-workshop responses. The only difference is that this second questionnaire, one semester later, yielded few responses that placed importance on meeting other students.

In a free response item students were asked what they would add to the Workshop. The content analysis produced no patterns or clusters of categories. The students did not agree on what should be added.

In two free-response items students were asked what major problems they had experienced in their first semester, and what advice they would give an entering student. One-half of the advice responses dealt with time usage as did one-fourth of the problem responses. The other major problem cluster dealt with homework and study skills.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Several conclusions and recommendations were drawn after analyzing the data. They deal with both evaluatory procedure as well as the workshop itself. The following are recommendations on evaluatory procedure:

A. The manner of obtaining information should be identical in the follow-up evaluations as in the end-of-workshop evaluations.

B. Considering that the means of the Likert-type items showed little variation when averaged, it is difficult to tell if the consistency is due to consistent reactions about the workshop. This could also be due to some other variable such as response set. Further study of this problem is recommended.

The following are conclusions and recommendations about the workshop itself:

A. The SAT scores and first semester GPA's indicate that the students

attracted to the workshop appeared to be an average group of CSUN freshmen.

B. We were impressed by the great differences among the students in what they found attractive and useful in the workshop, as expressed in the end-of-workshop and follow-up evaluation forms. Diversity of activities in a workshop is highly recommended.

C. While small groups can be useful, the small group leaders should be chosen carefully. The quality of leadership in these groups varied greatly, and appeared to be an important factor in whether or not they were rated positively.

The semester-later evaluations indicated that the students had an overwhelmingly favorable reaction to the workshop. In support of this conclusion are the following facts: There was nothing that the group as a whole agreed upon as a worthwhile addition; most of the students said they would recommend the workshop to university-bound high school graduates: the workshop activities were helpful, and the reading and study techniques are currently being used.

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MOTIVATING ACTIVITIES FOR REMEDIAL COLLEGE READING

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Albert Harris (1:283) has said, "Perhaps the most important problems in remedial work are those which are concerned with arousing interest and maintaining effort." To do this he suggests:

1. The poor reader should be helped to feel that he is liked, appreciated, and understood.
2. Success experiences are needed to supply the basis for overcoming the negative aftereffects of frustration and failure.
3. Active effort must be stimulated and sustained by use of both intrinsically-interesting reading matter and extrinsic or somewhat artificial incentives.
4. The learner should become involved as fully as possible in analyzing his reading problem, planning his reading activities, and evaluating his results.

It is to these ends that this paper is aimed. First, this paper will discuss approaching learning problems in terms of concrete explanations followed by pictorial relationships. The emphasis will be on perceptual problems as merely variations from the norm and only a problem in that they cause the student to have difficulty understanding what he is reading. Thus, the student is always given a positve affective view of himself as part of the whole population. Only in reading does his mind "play tricks" that can force him into being a "super sleuth" to solve a decoding problem. Second, the paper will discuss the use of magic in the classroom as a means of generating language experience activities and oral language experience. Through this media the student gains a positive self-image while practicing skills learned in other classroom activities.

MAGIC AS A MEANS TO PERCEPTION

There are three levels by which materials can be demonstrated or ideas explained. First, one can use concrete materials such as three-dimensional objects; second, representational materials such as pictures; or third, abstract materials such as language in oral or written form.

Frequently when we are attempting to explain to a remedial student the nature of his problem we utilize the highest level, the abstract, something we know by definition is causing him problems. I use magic, a concrete task, to show students that everyone has perceptual difficulties at times and that misperception can even bring enjoyment in terms of magic, painting and television. To be fooled is not to be stupid. It is only in reading, when it is important that everything be seen accurately, that misperception causes troubles. I have found that almost any trick works as long as the teacher has practiced it and it fools the students. They get the point and the teacher gets their attention.

OPTICAL ILLUSIONS AS A MEANS TO EXPLAIN VARIOUS PROBLEMS

After the student understands what perception means, the next step is to explain the different problems. Again, we often rely on verbal explanation when a representation is much clearer to most people. Here are several optical illusions I have used to discuss various problems. Zoolner's Illusion (fig. 1) is an excellent example of figure ground problems. The fact that the lines seem to come together although the student can hold a piece of paper to them and then see that they are parallel proves that the mind can be tricked. This is what happens to the student who sees words above and below the line he is reading. The perceptual illusion of "fly" (fig. 2) being in white instead of black, dramatically points out another aspect of figure ground relationships. Here, the student has problems isolating words from the background. If a student cannot see the word, have him color in the white between the black areas (thus changing the figure-ground relationships) and the word "magically" appears.

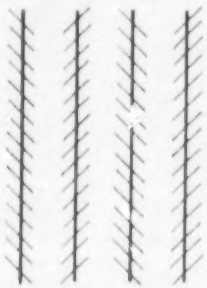

Figure 1

Figure 2

The Top Hat Illustration (fig. 3) illustrates distortion. This is the elongation problem often encountered by the student who sees "h" for "n". The Diagonal Illusion (fig. 4) indicates that other outside factors influence perception. Thus again the student might have trouble seeing words or phrases accurately. Many students have problems with oscillation (fig. 5). Do you see both the dogs and the telephone? You cannot see both at once. This is easily related to problems of decoding, in which the student's eye either focuses on the initial or final consonants, excluding or at least subordinating the medial vowel. Thus, if the student is asked to look at a word again, he will decode it accurately.

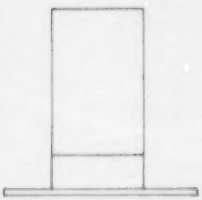

Figure 3

Figure 4

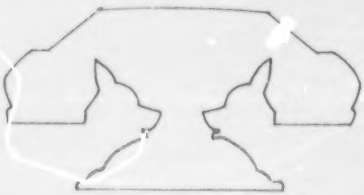

Figure 5

The Mason Disk (fig. 6) shows the students that things which aren't really there can seem to appear in the mind. When it is spun, colors begin to appear. This is an explanation useful when students see extra letters in words. Finally, Poeggendorff's Ilusion (fig. 7) illustrates why a student scans a line and returns to the wrong line on the left. The mind has provided a block like the black space and the eye becomes confused.

Figure 6

Figure 7

These optical illusions are given to everyone in the class to examine and we discuss how people are fooled in general and the problems the students have specifically in reading. Since extensive time has at this point been spent on the fact that everyone is fooled by optical illusions, the discussion tends to be very open, with students easily identifying with the various problems presented in the illusions. The illusions are then given to them to take home so that they can try them on other people and prove to themselves that everyone is really deceived by the eyes. Also this affords them the opportunity to become successful with others since they know the correct answers to the illusions.

MAGIC AS A READING TOOL

Magic is a naturally high-interest way to reach reading. It is a pleasant change for the student and an effective way for a teacher to vary a reading program without losing sight of basic goals. First, fully 90% of magic is presentation, and verbal performance is an important motivation technique. A trick done poorly by the teacher and later by the students brings the opposite of the effect desired. Everyone loses interest, the trick is exposed, and the students fear they will also be ridiculed if they attempt to do it for others. On the other hand, if well practiced, a trick will provide strong motivation in the classroom and strong positive reinforcement later.

The trick must be carefully chosen with the students in mind. Most tricks are not limited to a particular age or group. I believe that specific reading goals can and should be set in choosing a trick so it fits the needs of the class.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

1. The student will observe the teacher perform the magic tricks.
2. The student will write or dictate a chronological plot outline for his story.
3. The student will dictate or write a 100-word story containing a cause-effect relationship to accompany the magic trick.
4. Given a sequential set of oral or written directions, the student will make the graphics necessary to perform the magic trick (thus strengthening fine eye-hand motor coordination).
5. After receiving teacher assistance, the student will orally read his story with 99% accuracy.
6. Based on deduction of how the trick is performed (after watching it and making the materials), the student will write a set of instructions for performing the trick.
7. The student will perform without error the manipulations necessary to the trick (thus strengthening gross eye-hand motor coordination).
8. Without referring to the written story, the student will relate the story to an audience without error.
9. In his oral presentation, the student will maintain eye contact and make appropriate gestures.

10. Using all previous elements, the student will present the magic trick to the class.
11. The student will present the trick to groups outside the classroom.
12. One week after his performance the student will discuss with the class his affective experience with objectives 1 to 11.

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TRAINING PARA-PROFESSIONALS TO DELIVER TEST ANXIETY DESENSITIZATION

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This paper discusses the test anxiety program at the University of California at Davis and its use of para-professionals in providing test-anxiety desensitization. Para-professionals include any full or part-time staff who have not had formal counseling or psychological services training. We have used automated (taped) text anxiety desensitization programs for three years and served over three hundred students as individuals and in groups. Student response to the program has been excellent with most students reporting positive results. Their improvement on pre- and post-testing measures of test anxiety demonstrate the effectiveness of the program.

TEST ANXIETY LITERATURE

Literature of test anxiety is quite complete. Early work in desensitization by Wolpe (1958) and Paul and Erickson (1964) has demonstrated that desensitization works. They have also demonstrated how desensitization can be used as another treatment mode, in addition to the more traditional methods of psychotherapeutic or study counseling techniques. Allen (1971) showed how study counseling is more useful for students whose anxiety results from poor study habits while desensitization is more appropriate to conditioned emotional reactions to examination stress.

While the majority of literature supports the effectiveness of desensitization in reducing anxiety over the testing situation, some additional components of test anxiety have been identified. Liebert and Morris (1967) were able to distinguish between worry and emotionality in test anxiety. Working with a ten-item modified version of Mandler and Sarason's (1952) Test Anxiety Questionnaire, they identified worry as, "any cognitive expression

of concern about one's own performance, while 'emotionality' referred to autonomic reactions which tend to occur under examination stress." In her review of test anxiety literature, Wine (1971) noted that "training test-anxious subjects to relax in the presence of progressively more stressful stimuli . . . assumes that the emotional arousal component of test anxiety is its defining characteristic." Her own program emphasizes the cognitive aspects of test anxiety, training the student to stop engaging in counter-productive self-evaluations and to refocus attention on the task to be completed. Michenbaum (1973) developed a program which extends this concept. First students undergo "insight therapy", wherein they become aware of their counter-productive self-evaluations (negative self talk) and are taught to generate helpful instructions which help focus on and complete a task. An example of negative self-talk in the examination situation is ". . . that's two in a row I dor,'t know. I feel so tight. What if I can't get the next one! Then what!" Constructive self-talk is, "Now let's see, what does it say exactly . . . don't interpret or add anything — just exactly what does it say?" Next, a modified desensitization program is introduced where students are presented in a series of tests taking slow, deep breaths and using constructive self-talk. Wine and Meichenbaum thus attack the worry component of test anxiety in a much more systematic way. It seems that a group workshop would be most effective if it combined the traditional desensitization ideas of relaxation training paired with scene imagination and an attack on the worry component.

Automated programs also have ample support in the literature. Donner (1969), Mann (1967) and Suinn (1970) all demonstrated how taped programs can significantly reduce anxiety. Donner also showed a strong trend favoring therapist present groups for improved GPA while the treatment was not significantly different from an automated program. This is a good point for follow-up research.

Suinn (1969), Liebert and Morris (1967), and Sarason, I.G. (1972), all have developed and standardized assessment questionnaires. The Suinn Test Anxiety Behavior Scale (STABS) is the one used in this project.

PARA-PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE

Extensive graduate school or medical training is not necessarily a prerequisite for being an effective helper, for people with much less formal training can often be at least as effective as their professional counterparts. Carkhuff (1969) has summarized the research on how effective lay helpers can be:

> Extensive evidence indicates that lay persons can be trained to function at minimally facilitative levels of conditions related to constructive client change, over relatively short periods of time. Both carefully-screened college graduates interested in school guidance activities and unselected volunteers from school, hospital, and community at large demonstrate change in the direction of

more facilitative functioning on dimensions related to constructive client change or gain in training periods ranging from twenty hours to one year (Berenson, Carkhuff, & Myrus, 1966; Carkhuff & Truax, 1965; Demos, 1964; Demos & Zuwaylif, 1963; Gunning, Holmes, Johnson & Rife, 1965).

The emphasis in training para-professionals for test anxiety reduction consisted of selecting individuals who had already demonstrated basic interview skills and helping relationship characteristics. We did not attempt, therefore, to conduct a complete para-professional counseling, training program. The goal, then, was to add to basic skills by providing a systematic test-anxiety desensitization procedures that could be carried out in a routine fashion.

An example of a para-professional group are resident assistants who act as peer advisors in residence halls. I provided a two-hour training program for R.A.'s on how to administer, score and interpret the Swinn Test Anxiety Behavioral Scale. In addition, instruction was provided on how to use a series of five-test anxiety desensitization tapes. The last, was to evaluate student reaction and performance by means of post tests and interviews.

Inservice training was provided for professional staff in the Learning Assistance Center who had not had psychological training but who were competent interviewers and helpers. This training permitted professional staff to refer students to the test-anxiety series in our Learning Laboratory who were not severely test anxious.

The results of this progam were that fewer students are now being seen by the psychologically-trained individual on the staff, providing more time for the more severe test-anxiety students. The procedures used are as follows:

TEST ANXIETY REDUCTION PROCEDURES

I. Determining How Test-Anxious the Student Is.
   A. Interview the student individually or collectively as a member of a small group to determine whether the student has symptoms of anxiety such as:
      1. fear
      2. apprehension
      3. avoidance
      4. muscle tension (e.g. stomach aches, headaches, rapid heart beat, rapid respiration, perspiration, and prolonged insomnia)
   B. Use a study skills survey to determine if study skills problems are creating the anxiety.
      1. If a student does not have study skills problems, his test anxiety has a greater chance of being caused by a learned response to performance situations and not to poor study habits.
      2. A student having numerous study skills problems should be referred to the Learning Assistance Center for study skills help in addition to pursuing test anxiety desensitization.
   C. Use the *Suinn Test Anxiety Behavioral Scale*

1. Score this for the students or have them score it themselves.
   A. HOW to administer the test; scoring is done as follows:
      1. At the top of each column place a value of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, consecutively for each column.
      2. Sum the checks for each column and multiply that sum times the number above each column. For example, in column one you would multiply 1 times the sum of the checks in the column giving you a total for the column.
      3. After having a total for each column, sum the total for all columns giving you a total for that page.
      4. Then total all of the sums for each page to give you a total score for the test.
   B. HOW to interpret the score
      1. Students receiving a score of 125 on this instrument are at approximately the 50th percentile on national norms. They should be encouraged to follow through with the test anxiety reduction program and should probably show some improvement.
      2. Students below the 50th percentile will show little results other than having learned the skills of deep muscle relaxation.

II. Desensitization Procedures
   A. Explain that relaxation training and desensitization is needed; that test anxiety is a learned response and can generally be alleviated by more than 70% of the students using this procedure.
   B. The students will have to take responsibility for regular practice of the relaxation and desensitization procedures.
   C. There are five tapes, each requiring approximately 45 minutes listening time.
   D. The student should listen to the tapes twice a week for 2½ weeks and at follow-up sessions with the staff person to determine how he has responded to the tapes. Questions asked at the follow-up session include:
      1. Has the student practiced?
      2. How has the student felt during exams?
      3. Can the student notice any change in confidence during a test or lack of avoidance?

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USING LINGUISTICS IN THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION READING PROGRAM

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Today's reading teacher in the Adult Basic Education program can find much information to interest and help him in present-day linguists. As Wardhaugh has noted, linguists are concerned with theoretical issues relating to "what language in general is, about how individual languages are structured (for example, English), and about how languages change and vary over space and time." (11:82) The theories of linguists have begun to affect the way educators look at both the reading process and reading instruction.

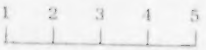
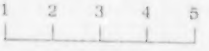
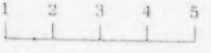
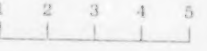
IMPACT OF LINGUISTICS ON READING INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

Teachers of reading in Adult Basic Education programs might do well to develop their awareness of how these theories affect the teaching of beginning reading to adults. Such teachers might start by identifying how their own beliefs about reading instruction are consistent with one or more schools of linguistic thought.

By indicating his agreement with each position listed on the form which follows, the teacher can identify whether he is closer philosophically to the structural linguists or transformational. The form is a simplified presentation of recommendations for reading instruction which both structural and transformational linguists have influenced. The recommendations based on structural theory are presented on the left side of the chart, transformational on the right.

Structural linguists in their intensive study of the sound system of English have tested many of the old phonics rules. They have discovered a number of generalizations about sound-symbol relationship which apparently occur

Table 1
TEACHING BEGINNING READING SKILLS
TO THE ADULT BASIC ED STUDENT

1. Teach student to sound out unfamiliar words by introducing him to various rules (phonics, word families, patterns in words and nonsense words).		Teach student to use context clues (semantic and syntactic cues) and form his own generalizations to explain phoneme-grapheme relationships.
2. Have student read short selections concentrating on the sounding out of unfamiliar words.		Have student read selections of varying length, encouraging student to read long selections soon, since they contain more cues to meaning than short selections.
3. Select reading materials with little or no pictures since pictures interfere with using sound-symbol cues.		Select reading materials in which pictures extend meaning, but do not provide major clues to meaning.
4. Use many oral reading experiences in the beginning reading program.		Have students develop silent reading skills (rate and comprehension) as early as possible.
5. Introduce student to reading literature once his general reading skills have reached approximately grade 4.		Introduce student to literature by reading it aloud to him until he has mastered reading informal language (natural speech).
6. Learning to read is a matter of responding correctly to a stimulus.		Learning to read is a matter of structuring perceptions so that meaning will result.

frequently enough to be worth the time it takes to teach and learn them. Structuralists in the 1960's recommend that the emphasis in beginning reading should be entirely on "cracking the code" with very little time devoted to comprehension skill development. (3) Hence nonsense words and sentences which were unnatural in their very limited vocabulary were found in reading programs based on these recommendations. Little attention was paid in these programs to any aspect of language other than phonemegrapheme correspondences. Sentences such as "Dan can fan the fat cat." and uncommon sentence constructions appeared in these programs.

Soon, however, linguists such as Lefevre (9) were calling for somewhat more emphasis in meaning. Transformational linguistics provided the theoretical basis for the relatively new field of psycholinguistics. The writings of Frank Smith (10) and Kenneth Goodman (5) have helped to provide models of the reading process based on transformational and psycholinguistic theory. Their work has helped educators see that "reading is more than the identification of words; their meanings must be combined in ways determined by the syntactic structure of the sentence." (1:225)

In the present decade researchers have provided support for recommendations made by Goodman and Smith which have clear implications for the teacher of beginning reading in Adult Basic Education programs:

1. Reading is a process through which the reader selects from available information only enough to predict a language structure which is decodable. The kinds of information available are:

   Grapho-phonic information. This is the information from the graphic system and the phonological system of oral language. Additional information comes to the reader from the interrelationships between the systems. Phonics is the name for those relationships.

   Syntactic information. This is the information implicit in the grammatical structures of the language. The language user knows these and, therefore, is able to use this information before he learns to read his native language. Reading, like all language processes, involves a syntactic context.

   Semantic information. As he strives to recreate the message, the reader utilizes his experiential conceptual background to create a meaning context. If the reader lacks relevant knowledge, he cannot supply this semantic component and he cannot read. In this sense, all readers regardless of their general reading proficiency are incapable of reading some material in their native language. (3:164-165)

2. The three cueing systems (grapho-phonics, syntactic and semantic) are used by the reader simultaneously and interdependently. Adults at the beginning reading stage, despite their familiarity with English syntactic and semantic systems, need help in recognizing that reading should "sound like language" and "make sense".
3. Since "no readers read material they have not read before without errors," (4:26) adult basic readers need to recognize that such errors are acceptable, and simply call for making another prediction based on the three cueing

systems. The teacher's role in providing feedback here is critical as the student needs both reinforcement of correct guesses and help in correcting inaccurate ones.

4. The more knowledge the reader has of the language, the easier the job will be in beginning reading. Because of his experience with the language, the adult basic reader can be helped rather quickly to move from what Smith terms "mediated comprehension" (where he must stop to identify letters or words before he can reach the point where comprehension can take place) to "immediate comprehension." (where he is actually reading the meaning, the message the author is attempting to convey). (10:8-9) Reaching the point where "immediate comprehension" is possible implies the need to build a rapid, fluent silent reading rate as soon as possible, which can be done by providing the student with materials which give him many experiences with predicting and verifying meaning. For this reason mystery stories or other high interest materials such as vocationally or life-style related materials are a valuable addition to the adult reading program. Not only do they provide opportunities to predict meaning, but they also offer the reader a long enough selection so he can make use of the redundancies of language to verify his guesses. Thus the reader is helped to develop flexibility in trying other reading strategies when his first attempt is unsuccessful (7).
5. In selecting reading materials for the adult beginning reader, the educator can keep in mind Pose Lamb's answer to the question "How much phonics?": "As little as is necessary to help the learner achieve increasing independence in the various coding tasks he must perform." (8:18) Even this much phonics instruction may not be necessary if the beginning reader is placed in a Language Experience program where he is successful in developing his own phoneme-grapheme relationship generalizations.

IMPACT OF LINGUISTS ON ASSESSING READING SKILLS

Growing out of the research by Kenneth Goodman, the *Reading Miscue Inventory* (6) provides Adult Basic Education instructors with a method of assessing reading strategies which is consistent with the view of the reading process just presented.

The RMI is somewhat similar to an informal reading inventory in that it is designed to be administered on a one-to-one basis orally and to provide a way of assessing the reader's word analysis and comprehension skills. Its purpose is two-fold: 1) to determine methods which the reader uses to unlock unfamiliar words and 2) to note what effect the student's miscues (errors) have on this comprehension.

When taking the RMI, the student reads orally a selection which is somewhat difficult for him and which should take him about fifteen minutes to read. The examiner does not supply unknown words. Then the student retells the story as completely as he can, aided by questions which the examiner asks to help expand on information the student has given in this initial

retelling. In analyzing the results, the examiner notes which of the three cueing systems (graphophonics, syntactic, semantic) the reader is using effectively, and also looks at the ways in which the student's miscues affect the meaning of what he is reading. A careful distinction is made between words which are actually misread and those which are simply pronounced in a non-standard way because of the reader's dialect.

The RMI is a powerful tool for analyzing a beginning reader's success in using various reading strategies. It identifies the reader's strengths and immediately provides the instructor with a positive basis upon which to build instruction. Various short forms of the RMI are now available which make the instrument less time consuming.

Suggestions in the final four chapters of the *Reading Miscue Inventory Manual* (6) offer concrete instructional procedures designed to help learners develop any of the cueing systems which may be weak. Since the emphasis in these chapters is strongly on meaning, they are very useful in planning instruction for adult learners.

RECOMMENDATIONS

With an increasing number of reading materials on the Adult Basic Education market which claim to be "linguistic", the reading teacher must be able to recognize the theoretical base of these materials and know whether they are consistent with his beliefs about the reading process. A word of caution: Kenneth Goodman reminds us that there is no such thing as a "linguistic" method of reading instruction "any more than there can be a 'psychological' method" (3:161). Reading instructors therefore must be ready to view with a critical eye any materials which claim to be "linguistic", and not be caught by a "bandwagon" sales technique being used currently to encourage instructors to purchase these materials for use in their programs. A careful review of *any* beginning reading materials for adults, using the suggestions listed in this article as a guide, should help the instructor select materials which will best supplement his current program. As the reading instructor uses the Reading Miscue Inventory, he will quickly learn which of the cueing systems his students need work in and can look for materials designed to provide needed instruction.

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A LEARNING CENTER APPROACH TO ESL

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Many roads lead to the acquisition of English as a second language by adults. A brief glance at ESL history shows that a good many roads have lamentably not guaranteed a native-like proficiency in Standard English. Possibly, the time has come to consider that success in language learning might not be the result of following any particular road, but rather the approach applied to any or all of them. The intent of this article is to make just such a consideration.

This article will examine the present state of ESL instruction in the United States, deal with needs rising out of research regarding the failures of current ESL instruction, outline the components essential to a Learning Center Approach that meets those defined needs, and discuss the advantages of such an approach to any language acquisition program.

PRESENT STATE OF ESL INSTRUCTION

"If there were as much failure in the schools of the world in the teaching of mathematics, history, or science as there is in the teaching of living languages, education as a whole might be said to have broken down." (7:143) This remark, made in the early 50's pertains as well to the state of ESL instruction today.

A few years ago the monolithic nature of language teaching seemed permanently entrenched (9:12.1). Though a few dissenting voices spoke against ridgid adherence to any method, the vast majority of ESL researchers, theorists, and instructors were firmly committed to the Audio-Lingual Method and the Classroom Language Lab Approach which was its outgrowth. Today theoreticians are massed in opposition to the Method that has dominated second language instruction for twenty years, but so far the opposition is having little effect on many ESL programs.

The present situation evolved from the 'scientific' linguistics of Leonard Bloomfield and his followers in the 20's and 30's and to the marriage of Bloomfield's linguistics with behavioristic psychology then in vogue (9:12). This led to a description of language seen as a collection of discrete items to be put together like building blocks. The process was not seen as creative but as the result of ingrained habit. Behaviorists came to describe language as conditioning and language acquisition came to be viewed as the end result of mimicry and memorization (9:12).

William Moulton in 1961 summed up the major principles of the Audio-Lingual Method: (1) Language is speech and (2) Language is a set of habits. These principles are the backbone for many ESL programs today. By 1961 the Audio-Lingual Method was solidly entrenched. It was embraced by the Army Language Schools, the Language Schools of the Peace Corps, and even the public schools.

In secondary school language programs, old texts were replaced by new ones and language labs were installed at monumental expense. The investment forced committment and made the method, the labs, and the classroom activities standard and fixed.

Journal articles and monographs lauding the language lab have all but disappeared, but the language lab is still very much with us primarily because of the size of the original monetary investment. The biggest defect of the lab is that it isolates the student. The sterility of the lab, its booths with walls that block access to others make language learning a solitary and lonely process (1:331).

The physical classroom in most ESL programs remains an isolated place in which language is divorced from the world. The ESL learners, often ostracized from the target language population, are likewise kept apart in the classroom. They interact only with the teacher and if that teacher develops their trust, the unnaturalness of the classroom leads the ESL student to believe those outside the classroom are somehow "different" from the teacher. Dependency cycles build and students sometimes stay for years with the same teacher afraid to interact with other natives outside the class (16:16).

Research into the effectiveness of various alternate methods have generally proven as disappointing in terms of achieving native-like language proficiency as the Audio-Lingual Method (15:272). one problem of such study might be that it continues to be conducted within the framework of the Classroom/Language Lab approach. Several other studies have gone so far as to question the effectiveness of language teaching at all (15:272). Upshurs Study (17:111) failed to produce any evidence that the amount of formal language instruction had any effect on the language learning that took place (3:131). John Carroll (3:131) found that college language majors were poor at speaking and understanding the language they had been studying for four years. Though many concluded such studies were indictments of attempting to teach language, I contend that they are really an indictment of the Classroom Language Lab Approach.

John Schumann hypothesizes that all methods are suspect in terms of what can be expected with regard to successful language acquisition (12:75). Regardless of method, some students learn but many do not. Therefore, the task seems to be one of studying successful learners rather than hopping from method to method.

Schumann, Selinker and others (14,12) in their research into Pidginization, Creolization, and Interlanguage show that many are brought to beginning levels of language attainment, but that only a few learners continue to standard proficiency. Why? Socio-linguists and cognitive psychologists have begun such investigation.

NEED AREAS

Recent studies emphasizing the social aspects of language acquisition have begun to examine individuals who have acquired proficiency in a second language to determine if there is a commonality of satisfied needs to account for their success.

Jack C. Richards studied social factors in language learning and drew some interesting conclusions. Immigrant learners of English who are not ghettoized are more likely to learn Standard English. Those successful in acquiring the second language tend to view the larger society as one which will admit them. The immigrant who mixes only with his own group will lower his chances of moving to Standard English. The greater the degree of interaction the learner achieves with the English-maintained societal structures, the greater the liklihood of successful language learning (11:161). Gilbert (1971) studied German immigrants to Texas. The immigrants were not poverty stricken and did not live in ghettoes. They suffered no handicaps and learned English easily (11:161). Gilbert's study reinforces the conclusions drawn by Richards that interaction with the target population is essential to successful language acquisition. The successful ESL learner has access to informal or friendship contacts with the target language population (11:161).

John Schumann talks of similar conditions when he deals with social and psychological distance for the learner of a second language. He defines social distance as the distance the learner views between himself and the speakers of the target language. He defines psychological distance as a learner's attitude toward himself, his language, and culture in relationship to the target language, population, and culture. He concludes that the narrower the distance, both socially and psychologically, the greater the chance for proficiency in the second language (12:75).

These studies all become hazy when applied to the classroom. One may argue that the studies are logical and sound but that the real world will not change overnight and the majority of ESL learners will continue to be unable to achieve the conditions necessary for easy acquisition of language. This would be true if we were to limit the findings of such studies to the Classroom Language Lab Approach.

If the findings of Schumann, Selinker, Gilbert, and Richards are to have any effect on improved language instruction, a change of approach is in order. The Educational community must encourage the creation of language environments that deal with the real needs of language learners. In our search for a new approach we should not lose sight of what I feel recent research indicates to be the most fundamental needs of the ESL learner:

1. The need of the learner to develop experientially in the English Language through maximum contact with native speakers in order to narrow both the social and psychological distance that exists between learner and target language, culture, and population.
2. The need of the learner to be immersed as much as possible in the English Language.
3. The need for a "real life" environment with a minimum of stress.
4. The need of the learner for individualization in terms of a particular program for particular needs.
5. The need to break the cycle of dependence that develops between the learner and his/her ESL teacher.

A LEARNING CENTER APPROACH TO ESL

A Learning Center Approach to ESL necessitates an atmosphere in which students are seen as individuals, with individual problems, which demand both individual diagnosis and particular programs to eradicate the obstacles in the way of successful language acquisition. A Learning Center Approach to ESL is one with an atmosphere that rewards risk taking on the part of learners and stresses the learning value to be found in error.

The environment in a Learning Center Approach must be one in which space and color interact creatively. A sense of openness should permeate the environment. Learning stations should flow from one into the next, rather than standing separate and apart and thus isolating the learner in his pursuit of language. Arrangement of materials and supplies should encourage self-reliance in learning. The environment should recognize the learning value in social situations by setting aside space for relaxation and refreshment. The environment has the responsibility of encouraging a sense of life in a place of learning.

This approach calls for maximum contact with the target language population on the part of the ESL learner. Studies of nonstandard immigrant English emphasize the importance of social and cultural variables in language learning (10:246). Leibowitz (10:246) considers these social aspects important. Whether instruction is by one method or another makes little difference, ". . . what is important are the opportunities that are thought available to the ethnic or language group themselves." (10:246). The crucial factor is the relationship "between the language group and the local society of the target language." (10:246) If the language learner feels rejected and outside the target language population, his English language suffers. The Learning Center Approach to ESL, taking this into account, must offer

maximum contact with native speakers, and leave little chance of failure in such contacts, so that positive language experiences can develop. Access to a good tutoring program, such as the one directed by Margarita Reyes in our own Center, can aid in this area. What results is a good one-on-one relationship between the ESL learner and a member of the target language population. The student is tutored, but more importantly, a relationship is developed with a native that often goes beyond the Center. This approach allows the ESL student access to the culture and society of the target language, for as Jack Richards points out, a language learner's level of English reflects the degree the learner has been given such access. (10:246)

Another component would be the maintenance of minimum stress. Stress can be kept at a minimum by making sure that the student is never forced into anything. The approach allows for a variety of options for the student. Though surrounded by native students, the ESL learner is not forced into interaction, but the Center technicians and aides make sure that ample opportunity is given the ESL learner to interact when he/she feels ready.

Individualization is another important component of the approach. It is encouraged because it allows the student to pursue his own language needs. It frees the teacher to work with small groups. Individualization does not mean isolation for the ESL learner. It means instead diagnosis of individual language problems and direction of the learner to people or materials in the center with whom the problems resolved.

ADVANTAGES OF A LEARNING CENTER APPROACH

The Learning Center Approach allows the ESL learner to develop language in a natural way, through maximum contact with native speakers of English. Cognitive psychologists feel that communication and communicative competence should be central to any successful approach (2:223).

The Learning Center Approach brings the English speaking world to the ESL student. It offers a "real life" language situation with a minimum of stress. Social distance is narrowed by making the ESL and native student proximous in the pursuit of their particular learning needs. The proximity maximizes the opportunity for interaction. Psychological distance narrows as the ESL student, through constant observation of natives in the Center, is forced to deal with and possibly reevaluate stereotypes he/she possesses regarding the target language, its population or culture. The native, likewise, through proximity deals with his own stereotypes of those new to English.

Another advantage of the approach is that it breaks the dependency cycle between student and ESL teacher. The teacher becomes one of many facilitators rather than a figure of absolute authority (1:68). Another factor in breaking dependency cycles is that the ESL student is on his own a great deal and responsible for his time and progress.

A Learning Center Approach to ESL carries out in practice the belief that if all languages are indeed the creations of men, then human needs must be

paramount if the learner is to acquire a second language in such a way that proficiency rather than mediocrity becomes the goal.

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SUBJECT AREA TUTORING: A WILD CARD IN THE LEARNING CENTER

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A recent programming emphasis of many reading study centers has been outreach to academic departments through direct involvement in content area related skills. One of the clearest manifestations of this trend can be seen in the development of subject area tutoring programs. An increasing number of learning centers now consist of both a tutorial component and a study skills component. In some cases, these two aspects of learning support have been combined from the program's inception. In others, one or the other of these two programming areas developed as a supplement to the original program. At the University of Texas at Austin the combination was effected by a merger of two existing programs.

Despite the fact that many centers are getting involved in subject area tutoring, it appears that the role of a subject area tutor is one that is only recently coming under scrutiny. As Rodney Reed's (1) survey of tutoring programs demonstrates, there is not even a constant meaning ascribed to the word "tutoring." While it generally describes a process of peer supplementation of subject area materials, it is sometimes used to describe peer study skills counseling. An examination of the literature on tutoring reveals that most of the research and publication has been concerned with peer tutoring in grade schools. Moreover, looking at our own organization, the Western College Reading Association, we find that concern with tutoring in subject areas is a recent phenomenon. (There were no presentations on subject area tutoring until 1975. In contrast, in 1976 an entire pre-conference institute will be devoted to it.)

As interest in subject area tutoring blossoms, several issues arise. The most basic of these is the issue of the four-part relationship between the learning specialist, the subject area instructor, and the student. Where

should the program be housed? Who should run it? What is the relationship of tutoring to teaching?

In the Fall of 1975, the Learning Services Center was formed at the University of Texas at Austin, through the programmatic and administrative merger of the Reading and Study Skills Lab (RASSL) and the Tutorial Assistance Program (TAP). RASSL has been, as the name implies, a reading/study program meant to help develop the general learning skills of the student. TAP has sought to supplement the specific course instruction through individual sessions with trained tutors.

The fact that, at U.T. Austin, the affiliation of tutoring and general learning support was based upon a significant programmatic and administrative merger and not the result of a more organic development, has led us to assess critically the rationale for, and the reality of, this interaction. The merger of RASSL and TAP has produced a hybrid which in many ways is greater than the sum of its parts. Tutoring for us has been a "wild card," helping to formulate options which were often previously impossible. What follows is a delineation of our goals in getting involved in tutoring, a discussion of the extent to which these were realized, and finally some thoughts on future directions.

BACKGROUND OF THE MERGER

As so often happens in large institutions, the administrative relationships and divisions in a university often reflect more than the history of that institution than any current logic. At the University of Texas at Austin, the Tutorial Assistance Program and the Reading and Study Skills Lab were distinct because of their historical development. Until the Fall of 1974, the tutorial program on the Austin campus was simply a list of qualified tutors kept on file in the Office of Student Financial Aids and made available to students on their request.

In the Fall of 1974, a special services grant awarded to the Dean of Students office from HEW served as a catalyst to bring about a real change in the nature of subject area tutoring. The objective of this grant was to provide academic support for financially-underprivileged students and to facilitate their retention at the University of Texas. In operation, the administrators of the grant sought to utilize existing services which were considered adequate and to develop their own programs where they were needed. One area considered in need of change was the delivery of subject area tutoring. The tutoring program, newly christened the Tutorial Assistance Program, was taken over by the Dean of Students office and was partially subsidized by the federal grant. At this time, the Reading and Study Skills Lab became involved with the new program through the release of a staff member to serve as a one-half time training consultant. (For a discussion of this training, see Hall's paper. (2)) Throughout the academic year 1974-75, TAP and RASSL were quite separate both physically and administratively. In the Spring of 1975 discussions were held which ultimately led to their merger.

WHAT WE SOUGHT

During our deliberations concerning the possibility of becoming directly affiliated with a tutoring program, several goals were developed. Probably our clearest goal was to involve the tutors more closely in study skills assistance. A study of U.T. Achievement Scholars (a group of high-potential students from poor educational backgrounds) had shown us that, although students who had used either TAP or RASSL had benefited, those students who had used both services had made the greatest gains. This progress was demonstrated by a significant change in grade point average, and helped show us the complimentary nature of the two programs.

We also sought to merge the programs because we were aware that they tended to attract two different populations; many students used only one when both were actually needed. The grade-point average of the typical student seeking tutoring was, in 1974, significantly below the campus norm. In contrast, the typical grade-point average of students coming to RASSL was well above that of the general campus. We were aware that students who were doing poorly tended to seek out specific help with their current difficulties. They often did not consider coming for study skills help. We hoped that by merging with tutoring we would now be able to help these students.

Our goals did not only center around making tutoring more effective. We also saw some specific ways which tutoring could make advantageous changes in our reading/study program. The clearest of these was its potential impact on outreach. At Austin, we have, for over four years, placed a strong emphasis on outreach programming. Along with our traditional delivery of in-house programs, we have been working with faculty members to bring our services to the subject area classroom. (For discussions of this programming, see Heard (3) and Faulkner (1).) With this longstanding committment to outreach, we saw tutoring as a chance to further develop our ties to academic departments by involving us even more directly in their subject areas.

Our goals could not be summarized by saying that we sought to more effectively serve the population needing tutoring, and to increase our involvement with subject area materials and departments.

WHAT WE GOT

The complete integration of the two previously independent programs have produced most of the benefits which we anticipated and sought. By closely involving tutors with the study skills aspect of our program, we believe that we have increased their effectiveness. Since one of the goals of tutoring is to develop independent learners, a straight purveyance of cognitive information cannot be considered adequate. An implicit (though probably unrealistic) goal in tutor-training must therefore be to try to turn each tutor into a "subject area learning specialist." We are finding that the tutor is in a unique position to respond to specific concerns of some students by suggesting appropriate study techniques.

Other results of our program merger include some new endeavors previously untried by either TAP or RASSL. For example, we have developed new focus groups and classes which parallel or support tutoring. Traditionally, subject area tutoring has been delivered through a one-to-one ongoing relationship between student and tutor. Our data demonstrates that these traditional individual sessions have been effective. However, they are certainly not highly cost-effective.

The exigencies of a 42,000 student campus are leading us to explore alternatives. One area of alternative programming lies in the possibility of a modified RASSL class. We are offering groups which are co-led by a RASSL instructor and a tutor. Our first offering was a group entitled, "How to Study Science." This has since been refined and subdivided into a group on the physical sciences and one on the natural sciences. These consist of units on traditional study skills as well as lab techniques and problem solving.

We have made similar programming efforts in other disciplines. We periodically offer groups dealing with the study of history, government, philosophy, and psychology, as well as our traditional groups on foreign languages. Part of the motivation for these new programs comes from the stated objectives which came to us with the tutoring program. These objectives included offering tutorial support for any undergraduate course. Since the less quantifiable disciplines, specifically the humanities and social sciences, don't lend themselves to traditional tutoring, the gap was filled with these subject area groups. A serendipitous benefit of these groups has been a dramatic increase in faculty contact in those disciplines where they are offered. The departments are announcing these groups to lower division classes and in most cases are participating in their development. In one case — philosophy — the department has become involved with the actual presentation.

Tutoring has also increased our involvement with the academic departments in other ways. Part of this increase has come through the use of what we call "tutor consultants." These individuals are graduate students drawn from the four area in which we have our greatest demand for tutoring. The role of these four individuals is to participate in the training of the tutors and to establish and maintain a liaison with the departments which correspond to their academic areas. The development of these positions has increased the diversity of our learning center staff and has given us the resources to develop and offer new programs directed at specific disciplines or colleges.

Not all of the results of our involvement with tutoring have been positive. As might be expected, the merger of two already existing programs, both with their own distinct patterns of operation, is complicated. As John Morgan (4:149) has pointed out, programmatic mergers can call into question even such basics as the unspoken value, the lines of communication and the cultures of an office. The most concrete manisfestation of this change in our reading lab was the 60 percent increase last semester in our walk-in traffic and the addition of over 80 tutors to our staff.

Currently our tutoring program operates with a low public profile. Because of funding restrictions, we can't widely publicize our services. Despite the lack of advertising, last semester we helped almost 650 students obtain nearly 5,200 tutoring hours (averaging about 8 hours per student.) As we contemplate future growth, the prospect of our regular subject area meetings in some of our more frequently-tutored disciplines starts to resemble a departmental faculty meeting. Stated more succinctly, the very prospect of bigness can be seen as a problem.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

With our first year ending, we are assessing the effect of our merger with tutoring and examining what further changes may be necessary. One major area of concern is the question of centralization vs. a satellite system of tutoring. Our experience this year leads us to the conclusion that at a large "multiversity" like U.T. Austin, tutoring should be partially decentralized. We are proposing that our center continue to offer tutorial assistance in lower division courses but that tutoring in upper division courses be offered by the academic departments themselves. Under this proposed system, our role (beyond providing lower division tutoring) will be to provide an interdepartmental liaison and to coordinate campus-wide tutor training.

This move toward partial decentralization will, we hope, further our original goals in several ways. By being involved with the departments in offering tutoring, we believe we will be making further progress in outreach: we will be "doing it with them." Another benefit that we foresee is that tutoring in the department can have a significant impact on that department's teaching effectiveness. At Austin, we have two models of this departmental tutoring. The College of Engineering has an established tutoring program and the School of Nursing is starting one this fall. In the College of Engineering the tutors are in an enviable position to give feedback to individual professors on the effectiveness of a particular explanation or a textbook assignment. Whereas the Learning Services Center could not easily make comments on teaching effectiveness, the departmental tutors' comments are not only welcome but are solicited by the professors and deans.

Because tutoring is working well, and has catalyzed some very positive changes in our center, it has taken some time for me to conceptualize alternatives to our present centralized system. When I was asked almost a year ago to coordinate the Tutorial Assistance Program and to steer its course into the Learning Services Center, my first thoughts were that, in the spirit of a large university, we should build a large program. I now conclude that it is precisely the magnitude of our institution that makes a large central tutoring program inadequate.

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THE SELF-CONCEPT WAY TO READING

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When encountering students in a learning environment, one cannot segregate the academic personality from the total "self" because the concept of self permeates all existence (1). This paper will explore the development of the components of self-concept, their effect on the process of learning to read, and the characteristics of self-concept that must be evaluated before change can be initiated.

DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF

The "self" is developed in a three stage process that might be diagrammed:

perceptual → humanistic → phenomenological (2)

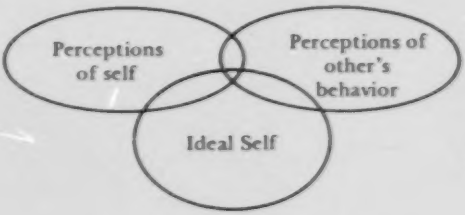
As the child develops his sense of "self", he not only accumulates experiences but also evaluates those experiences. All that occurs in one's environment filters through one's perceptions; those experiences being registered as interpretations of events, distorted by one's own values, beliefs and needs.

The perceptual process of the formation of "self" begins very early with a child's sensory awareness of his own world. He begins with a consciousness of light, heat, touch, sounds, and movement. He has no sense of his own existence except through his sensory input. As his sensory perceptions develop further, the child begins to formulate humanistic perceptions about his physical self in relationship to his immediate environment. Still later, the child evolves a phenomenological self through his social interaction. Obviously the family, being his primary and most concentrated social constituency, has the most durable influence on the development of self. In fact, it is estimated that approximately 90% of the child's early self can be accounted

for by his family. (3) Later the child's social contacts will extend beyond the immediate environment to the neighborhood, the school, and the community. Although the development of self-concept is the interactive effect of accumulated experiences throughout life, it is becoming more apparent that the child is most likely to explore the reaction of others to his behavior during the second and third chronological years of his life, and thus formulates what will be his pervading personality. Thus the foundations of self-concept are formed very early and are frequently strengthened rather than altered as the child grows older. This is not to imply that self-concept cannot be manipulated; it is merely intended to point out that the development of self-concept is a complex process that requires much concerted effort to alter.

INFLUENTIAL DETERMINERS AND MAINTAINTERS OF SELF-CONCEPT

The individual maintains a continuous, ongoing search for reinforcement of his concept of self whether that reinforcement adds to the positiveness or negativeness of it. The source of interpretation and maintenance of self-concept has three influential components that, although distinct in nature, intersect to form a complex meshing of parts.



The first component in the above figure is the individual's own perception of himself. If he feels himself a capable human animal, he will interpret his world as a series of positive experiences and probably succeed at most ventures because he believes he can.

The second component in the intersected circles is the perception one forms of other people's behavior toward him. Individuals frequently misinterpret other's behaviors because the self image censors other's reactions, distorting them to match the perception one has established in himself. The extent of influence others exert depends upon whether the other person is significant to him. Parents and teachers (4) play major roles as significant others in students' lives; therefore, the interpretation of their behavior has extensive influence on the maintenance or alteration of self-concept.

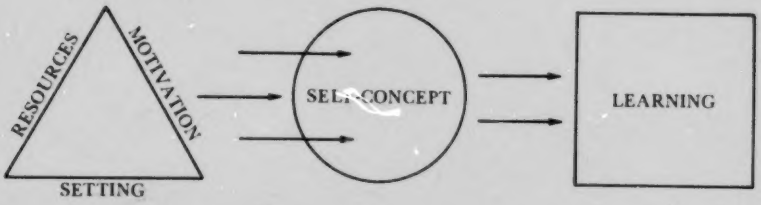
The final influential component is the ideal self. (5) The interpretation of one's own self and other's behavior to that self is contrasted to the individual's ideal of himself, that is, what paragon he has established for himself.

The changing or altering of self-concept will then depend upon the amount

of interplay of these three components. The modification of any one component will, in turn, affect the other components. The academic environment can often be the instigator of such change because of the dominant role self-concept plays in learning. Before we explore the means by which the learning environment can modify the self and vice versa, let us explore their relationship.

SELF-CONCEPT IN LEARNING TO READ

As the model of learning illustrates, all learning takes place when three agents are present: resources (language ability, intelligence, self-direction, etc.); motivation (instrinsic and/or extrinsic); and a conducive setting (both physical and psychological).



But the mere existence of those agents, even favorable ones, does not preclude failure. All experiences flow through the learner's concept of self, that concept being an efficacious determiner of the quality of learning.

If the view of self the learner perpetuates is positive, learning may occur even when the learning setting is limited. Conversely, if the view of self is negative, even model learning settings will be hampered. The magnitude of self-concept's influence on learning becomes a primary consideration for the instructor as is illustrated by the following communication paragraph:

Communication From Student To Tutor

Student: female, age 34, ESL background, also has a child in the program. Tutor's name is Sue. Student is taking remedial English, also.

Hollo Sus

Here I'm on this moring time 7:05 "yes I now its erely I have to came at this time so I can fine parking". Tursday I could not fine parking in school or eveny five blocks frome school. I fill sade because I missed one day af school. Poor Mr. G. I think I sceare him. We were doing a spilling test. He did a big no no. He came to my table and look at my paper. All I could feel was plase don't look at my paper can you see I can't spell at all. I am a big dummy. Oh well that's the way it go's.

You no Sus it's so hardt for me to came to shcool. I really don't no what I am really doing here. You no Sus it's so nice noing you, because you can undstany how I feel and best of all I can tell you how bati I spll and no that you will not

lafe at me or call me stupe it. Thank You Sus, for leting me w te to you. I hope you have a nice day.

Maria's tutor can hope to become a significant other in Maria's life and to manipulate the learning experience and environment to alter Maria's perceptions of herself and, thereby, encourage a more positive self-concept which will facilitate learning. If the tutor is to do this effectively, she must go beyond understanding how self-concept was formed. She must also be able to more accurately and thoroughly understand and measure the nature and extent of Maria's established self-concept as it now exists so that designs to modify her self-concept can be created.

Perhaps the key to a more thorough understanding of self-concept is to analyze it in its most basic terms. Simply stated, self-concept is an individual's *attitude* toward him/herself, both the whole self and the component parts that constitute the whole. To discover the nature of self-concept one must examine the nature of *attitudes*.

Nine characteristics of attitudes (6) have been identified that, when viewed in light of *attitude toward self*, provide insight into the nature and essence of self-concept. The remainder of this paper will describe these characteristics.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDES

Stability

Attitudes tend to remain stable. Attitude toward self (or self-concept), once it is established, is particularly resistant to change because if it is assumed that all experiences are filtered through the self, then the self must remain stable if these experiences are to have continuity and meaning.

> Once established in a given personality, the perceived self has a high degree of stability. The phenomenal self with the self-concept as its core represents our fundamental frame of reference, our anchor to reality; and even an unsatisfactory self organization is likely to prove highly stable and resistant to change. This stability has been repeatedly demonstrated in modern research. (7)

Despite this resistance, self-concept is an attitude, and attitudes can be modified and changed. The degree to which attitude toward self can be changed, the amount of effort needed to effect a change in self-concept, and the areas where the effort must be expended are determined in great part by the additional characteristics discussed below.

Direction

An attitude is either positive or negative. We know from Maria's paragraph that her attitude toward academic work or school is in a negative direction.

Magnitude

Magnitude describes *how negative or positive* the attitude is. The more

negative the attitude, the more difficult it is to alter. From Maria's paragraph, it is safe to assume that she feels extremely negative.

Intensity

The intensity of an attitude is the importance, or strength of feeling, attached to the attitude. For example, a person could have an attitude toward one of his attributes that is of high negative magnitude, but that attribute, however negatively he feels about it, may not be of great importance to his life. On the other hand, an attitude of high negative magnitude can also be of high intensity. Maria may have negative feelings of high magnitude toward herself as a student and as a athlete. But her role as a student is likely to be more important to her life than her role as an athlete. The more intense a negative attitude, the more difficult it is to change.

Ambivalence

One could react both favorably and unfavorably to different aspects of an attitude. Ambivalence means the *coexistence* of two conflicting feelings and does *not* imply the disappearance of an attitude or the replacement of one attitude with another. Indeed, the self, in searching for meaning and adequacy, not only resists change, but strives for consistency, even if the consistent self is a negative and unhappy one.

Behavior that appears to indicate a change in attitude may in reality be only a temporary manisfestation of an ambivalent attitude called forth by a change in situation. Combs and Snygg (8) explain it this way:

> Casual observation of the behavior of the same individual in various situations would lead one to believe that the self undergoes wild and fluctuating changes in differing situations. What seems like wild and fluctuating changes in the phenomenal self, however, are in reality artifacts of the frame of reference from which they are observed.

In the school environment, Maria sees herself as a failure because she views her level of competency as much lower than those around her. But if her mother, father, and brother do not read and have never been to school, she may exhibit a more positive self-concept of herself as a student in their presence. Her attitude towards herself as a student exhibits ambivalence, but the negative attitude she feels in school does not disappear, nor is it replaced by the attitude manifested in the situation with her parents.

In spite of the self's tendency toward consistency, the more ambivalent an attitude, the greater the chances are of effecting some change.

Centrality

Centrality refers to the extent that the attitude affects and determines the total personality. An attitude that exhibits centrality is the pivotal point which determines most of the individual's behavior. This total personality which is a melting of one's varying self-concepts in specific areas into one predominating view of self is often referred to as the global self, or central-self.

If Maria's negative attitude toward herself as a student is of great enough magnitude, intensity, and consistency, it may affect her total self-concept and cause her to feel and act negatively, regardless of the situation or circumstance.

Affective Prominence

Affective prominence describes how emotionally an individual reacts to a particular attitude. A person could have two attitudes that are equally negative in direction and equally high in magnitude and intensity, but the attitude that involves the individual more emotionally will be the more difficult attitude to change. Again, if Maria reacts more emotionally to her failure as a student than as an athlete, her attitude toward herself as a student will be the least likely of the two to change.

Duration

Duration refers to the length of time an attitude has been held by an individual. The longer an attitude is held, the more deeply engrained the attitude becomes. Maria's attitude toward school was obviously formed when she was first in school, and she has lived with it almost 30 years. This attitude will not be easily altered.

Imbeddedness

The extent to which attitudes are related can be viewed as the degree of imbeddedness. If Maria feels that her success as a mother depends in part, or is related to her ability to read and write, then the negativeness she feels toward herself as a student may transfer to her perception of herself as a mother. On the other hand, if Maria feels positively toward herself as a mother and if she sees a relationship between her role as mother and student, or if the instructor can create a relationship for Maria, then the positiveness of motherhood may be able to favorably influence her view of herself as a student.

It should now be evident that self-concept is a complex phenomenon that colors the child's functioning of all phases of life. But to understand the self-concept it must be remembered that the three components of self-concept (perceptions of self, perceptions of others, and self ideal) are not isolated entities but a finely balanced amalgam of perceptions. If all learning filters through this self, the instructor has a major responsibility to alter one or more segments that will, by their overlapping effect, alter all segments to some extent. Too often attempts to affect the stable condition of self-concept have been sporadic trial and error efforts. In order for influential alterations to occur, systematic and continuous assessment of the component characteristics must take place. Until the direction magnitude, intensity, ambivalence, centrality, affective prominence, duration and imbeddedness of an individual's self perception has been defined, learning will fall on non-receptive beings where negative self-attitude prohibits academic and social gains.

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SUGGESTOPEDIA: A TEACHING STRATEGY FOR THE SEVERELY DISABLED READER

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In attempting to better satisfy the needs of individuals in college reading skills classes, new teaching techniques are constantly being sought. These techniques often turn toward the automated learning center approach — put the student with a machine and let him go to work — in the hope that this self-paced instruction will provide the necessary skills needed for a successful educational experience. However, time and experience tells us this is not the answer for all students.

Countless words have been written concerning self-paced programs. It has been this author's findings that those students who are already highly motivated, firmly disciplined, and already have a reasonably accurate self-image are usually the ones that exhibit substantial progress in self-paced programs. But what is done to properly instruct those students who do not exhibit those traits?

This paper is directed toward supplying one answer to that question. This teaching strategy, entitled Suggestopedia, is a relatively new technique in American educational systems, but it is a well-proven technique in European institutions. The description offered in this paper is of the suggestopedic process as it is used in various American institutions and particularly as it is applied at South Plains College in Levelland, Texas.

THE ORIGIN OF SUGGESTOPEDIA

In the early 1960's, a Bulgarian psychiatrist, Dr. George Lozanov, first became interested in suggestion as it related to various therapeutic techniques employed at the Medical Post — Graduate Institute in Bulgaria. Of primary concern to the Institute was the teaching of foreign language;

115

English, French, German, Italian and Russian to adults, and later the teaching of mathematics, history, literature, physics, chemistry, and biology. (1) In 1972, Suggestopedia was adopted for use in Bulgarian elementary schools, and it is now in use in schools from the nursery school level through the university level.

Applications of the suggestopedic method in the Western world from 1973-1975 ranged from the teaching of English and French to Canadian government employees, Hungarian at the University of California in San Diego, Spanish at Texas Tech University, to psychology at Pepperdine University. (1) In these projects, the classic suggestopedic method has been modified to conform to the needs of the modern American classroom, but the basis for all applications continues to be Lozanov's theory of including a relaxed body state and, at the time, a relaxed but alert mental condition.

COMPONENTS OF SUGGESTOPEDIA

Suggestopedia is a "technique combining memory expansion and relaxation, creating an alert but relaxed state of mind, during which the anti-suggestion barriers are lowered and the receptiveness of the individual to suggestion and retention of new material." (1:7) Lozanov has hypothesized that all of us are continually exposed to suggestion from the environment; but in order to protect oneself from receiving too much stimuli, anti-suggestion barriers are established. There are three anti-suggestion barriers: first, the critical logical barrier, which rejects all that does not make a logical impression; second, the institutional-affective barrier, which rejects all that does not create a feeling of confidence and security; and third, the ethical barrier, which rejects all that contradicts the principles and values of the individual. It is possible, through bypassing the defense mechanisms, to reach the unused 90% of the brain with a resultant increased learning speed and retention of material with very little effort on the part of the individual. (2) The use of relaxation techniques and deep breathing exercises in Suggestopedia are, therefore, instrumental in reducing anxiety, freeing the mind of distractions that hamper learning, and allowing the new material to be more easily received and retained.

Relaxation The use of relaxation in Suggestopedia is vital, as it is through the use of these techniques that the anti-suggestion barriers are lowered. In the initial stages of Suggestopedia, as much time as is required should be devoted to the Relaxation Training Sequence. During this time, the instructor should be striving to accomplish two major goals. First, care should be taken in ensuring that each student understands the feeling of being physically relaxed. During the training sequence, instructions are given to the student concerning different muscle groups and the feeling that one has when they are tense and when they are relaxed. Correct deep breathing exercises are also included in the Relaxation Training Sequence and are most important in achieving the required physical relaxation. Second, and of

equal importance to physical relaxation, is the "mood" or atmosphere created by the instructor in his interactions with the students. "A warm, understanding, sympathetic setting incudes a state of mental calm which may well be more important than the muscle relaxation which is used as the vehicle in relaxation training and exercises." (1:9) Research indicates that it is very possible to achieve physical relaxation without reducing tension and anxiety, thus supporting the major importance of mental relaxation as well. (1)

Suggestion Achieving the required relaxed physical and mental state with the accompanying mental alertness is accomplished through a "suggestive — persuasive — reeducative approach aimed toward increasing the self-confidence, self-understanding, and situational control of the individual." (1:9) However, this approach should not be confused with therapeutic techniques such as hypnosis or transcendental meditation. Mental alertness is a key ingredient in Suggestopedia, but the application of the mental awareness is quite different from either hypnosis or T.M. (3) Students involved in Suggestopedia are often encouraged to fantasize or visualize the material as it is presented to them. At South Plains College, students are often asked to visualize the scenes of the story as it is read with the anticipated result being increased mental stimulation and alertness.

Self-Confidence Once again, the instructor plays a significant role in the creation of an atmosphere where students are encouraged and complimented in a positive and helpful manner. Mistakes are corrected in a non-critical way so as not to impede any possible input of new material to the student. Positive and inspirational statements like, "I have confidence in my ability to learn new material;" or "If I am called on, I can respond immediately and effectively," are common during the relaxation and suggestive portions of Suggestopedia.

Of particular importance is the fact that much of the outcome of Suggestopedia is in terms of personal adjustment. Lozanov indicated that at all levels, individuals involved in suggestopedic learning have increased their self-concept and have emerged with a more positive attitude about themselves. (2)

Music In the suggestopedic process, the role of music is to support the learning process by acting as a medium to activate the subconscious. Music that frees the individual from anxiety and worry is especially good, but care should be exercised in selecting a musical background that is not monotonous or that induces sleep. The slow movements, and particularly the pastoral sequences, of works by Bach, Vivaldi, Handel, Strauss, and Hayden are particularly good as background music for relaxing and learning.

APPLICATIONS OF SUGGESTOPEDIA AT SOUTH PLAINS COLLEGE

The use of Suggestopedia at South Plains College has been limited to two areas of academic endeavor. The first was in an English (grammar) class at a

local Air Force base and was conducted from October to December, 1975. The other is in a college reading skills class, currently in progress, consisting of eight E.S.L. students and eleven English-speaking students.

The English class was composed of 15 enlisted Air Force personnel with an age range of 18 to 22 and a completed educational level of 10th grade to nigh school graduate. Pre-test results, as measured by the *California Test of Adult Basic Education*, Level D, Language Battery, ranged from 7.5 to 10.1 grade level with a mean score of 8.3. Two groups were utilized, an experimental group consisting of nine students and a control group of six students. Class sessions for both groups were 50-minute meetings three times per week for 10 weeks. Total instructional time was 25 hours.

Since the procedures employed in both the grammar class and the reading class are very similar, the description for the reading class is also applicable to the English project.

Results of the initial suggestopedic project were encouraging but not significant. The size of the primary control group (control group 1) precluded any significant comparisons from being drawn.

Suggestopedia is currently being used with the eight E.S.L. students; five of which are from Viet Nam, and one each from Iran, Peru, and Thailand. Reading levels of the group range from 3.2 to 7.0 with a mean score of 5.4, thus allowing all students to work in one group.

Class organization is very similar to that which was used in the English project. The one major difference is in the time allocated for class meetings. In the reading skills class, four hours of instruction per week (two hours per day, two days per week) are provided with two hours per week (one hour per day) reserved for application of Suggestopedia. In the remaining two hours per week, the students work in the reading lab on specific study skills, vocabulary skills, and other pertinent course work.

The organization of the suggestopedic portion of the class follows these lines. First, a very short overview of the day's activities is given (one minute). Such things as the stories that are to be read and their page numbers and the vocabulary words and their page numbers are announced. The answering of any questions concerning the day's activities is also carried on during this short, introductory portion since questions are now allowed during the actual suggestopedic phase of the class. Next, the 7½ minute "relaxation tape" is played with accompanying background music. At the conclusion of the tape, the instructor begins the presentation of the day's new material. This presentation is repeated twice, once during the active portion of the seance and once during the passive portion. (The term "seance", is used in the traditional French sense, rather than the mystical interpretation). Total time for both presentations is 50 minutes.

During the active seance, the students are directed to read along silently as the instructor reads aloud. The reading by the instructor should be done in a voice intonation that is a mixture of normal and authoritarian tones. The new vocabulary words and their contextual meanings are also presented, in the same tones as the stories, with the students continuing to follow along in

Table 1
ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BY GROUPS

Criterion Variable: English Pretest Score by Group

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental	9	8.78	0.71
Control 1	6	7.72	0.15
Control 2	5	7.12	0.47
Control 3	7	8.67	1.11

F = 7.33 Significant at the .01 level

Criterion Variable: English Posttest Score by Group

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental	9	9.43	1.55
Control 1	6	8.45	0.75
Control 2	5	6.48	0.96
Control 3	7	9.10	1.34

F = 6.41 Significant at the .01 level

Criterion Variable: English Pretest Score by Combined Group

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental	9	8.78	.71
Combined Control	18	7.92	.96

F = 5.57 Significant at the .05 level

Criterion Variable: English Posttest by Combined Group

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental	9	9.43	1.55
Combined Control	18	8.16	1.50

F = 4.27 Significant at the .05 level

Criterion Variable: English Net Gain or Loss by Combined Group

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental	9	.66	1.03
Combined Control	18	.23	.96

F = 1.11 Not Significant

Table 2
EXPERIMENTAL AND COMBINED CONTROL GROUP COMPARISONS BY SCORE CATEGORY

Score Category	Experimental			Combined Control			t	Significance
	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Standard Deviation		
Pretest	9	8.78	0.71	18	7.92	0.96	2.36	.05
Posttest	9	9.43	1.55	18	8.16	1.50	2.07	.05
Change	9	0.66	1.03	18	0.23	0.96	1.05	Not Significant

SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATIONS

English Pretest and English Posttest

Experimental Group $r_s = .75$

Combined Group $r_s = .93$

English Pretest and Relaxation Rating $r_s = .01$

English Posttest and Relaxation Rating $r_s = .17$

English Pretest-Posttest Gain and Relaxation Rating $r_s = .38$

their books. Upon completion of the three stories and the corresponding vocabulary, the students are directed to close their books, close their eyes, and become very comfortable and relaxed.

With the students in this relaxed condition, the passive portion of the seance is conducted. During the re-reading of the same three stories and vocabulary words, this time in a very quiet, soft, soothing tone, the students are asked to either visualize the stories as they are read or simply listen to the music. In either case, they are asked not to concentrate on the actual words that are being read. In reviewing results from past suggestopedic projects and in analyzing the current projects, it appears that the passive seance is a most important activity as it relates to achieving real gains from the total technique.

At the conclusion of the passive seance, the entire suggestopedic activity is concluded. The 1½ minute "conclusion tape" is played which brings the students back to their normal functioning state. After a short break, the class resumes for an additional hour of work in the lab during which time questions are answered concerning the new material presented that day.

Results concerning the use of Suggestopedia in college reading skills classes are inconclusive at this time. However, preliminary conclusions drawn from student interviews and periodic tests indicate that the process is working. Student tension and anxiety levels appear to be low, and the frustration involved in learning to read more efficiently is noticeably less than when the class was initiated. Of great importance, at least to this writer, is the fact that the students were extremely excited about the class and thoroughly enjoyed it. We are also finding that material coverage is approximately three times greater than what would normally be expected with at least doubled comprehension. These inconclusive results are leading us to believe that Suggestopedia is a most worthwhile and valuable technique in working with E.S.L. students and disabled readers.

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A SYSTEM OF INDIVIDUALIZED READING DIAGNOSIS AND INSTRUCTION ON THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEVEL

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The Ohlone College Reading Center has developed an integrated system of diagnostic testing procedures, individualized prescription of skill building materials, and the training of reading tutors which provides the remedial reading student with personalized instruction based on his specific skills needs. The key to this successful program is the creative and effective use of sixteen Reading Tutor Videotapes developed by the reading instructor with the cooperation of the college's Faculty Projects Committee, the Dean of Instruction, and the Audio-Visual Department. This article describes the procedures which enable one reading instructor, a full-time instructional assistant and a cadre of student tutors to offer the service of person-to-person reading instruction to a community college student body of 5400.

IDENTIFYING REMEDIAL STUDENTS

The Ohlone College Reading Center conducts eight individualized reading and study skills courses in which students may enroll and receive one unit of credit for each course successfully completed. These eight courses are: Vocabulary Improvement, Skimming and Scanning (½ unit), Improvement of Learning Techniques, Rapid Reading, Reading Rate Improvement, Improvement of Word Attack Skills, Reading Comprehension Improvement, and Spelling Improvement. Upon enrolling in a particular course, a survey test is administered to each student in small group sessions; the test results are used to prescribe the specific multilevel, self-pacing skill building materials to be used by each student. However, those students who score in the bottom percentiles of the survey tests are identified as candidates for addi-

122

tional diagnostic testing and personalized instruction by tutors. Further candidates for diagnoistic testing and tutoring assistance are determined by lab personnel observation of students enrolled in the one unit courses who were not identified through the initial survey testing, by personal referrals from other college instuctors and counselors, by individual students who come to the Reading Center for special assistance on their own initiative, and by students who bring their friends to seek individual assistance. Once a student is identified as needing diagnostic testing and tutoring assistance, he is assigned a tutor to work with him a minimum of three hours weekly.

TRAINING THE TUTORS

Meanwhile, through the sequential use of the reading tutor videotapes, each tutor is carefully trained on how to assist his tutee most effectively, how to administer the assigned diagnostic reading tests, and how to use the skill building materials prescribed for his tutee. (A complete list of the reading tutor videotapes and their contents is included at the end of this article.) First each tutor, as he is selected to tutor in the Reading Center, views at his own convenience and within his own time schedule the videotapes entitled "General Orientation for the Reading Tutor" and "General Guidelines for Working with the Reading Tutee." These videotapes orient the tutor to the general procedures of the tutoring program, his responsibilities as a tutor, and guidelines for effective communication and assistance to the tutee. The tutor may replay any section of the information he wishes to review, and the reading instructor is available for personal discussions and explanations.

ADMINISTERING THE DIAGNOSTIC TESTS

When he assigns a tutee to a particular tutor, the reading instructor decides from his initial interviews with the tutee the appropriate diagnostic tests that should be administered. Normally, as a first step, each tutee undergoes vision screening through the use of a telebinocular. Although the next particular diagnostic test varies for individuals, experience shows that most potential tutees are first administered the reading section of the Wide Range Achievement Test. If the tutee is to be administered the test, the reading tutor views the videotape entitled "How to Administer the Wide Range Achievement Test." After demonstrating his mastery of how to administer the test to the reading instructor or instructional assistant, the tutor audiotapes the tutee's oral reading of the test list. The instructor then listens to the audiotape at his convenience and analyzes the tutee's responses and results; the instructor also determines if the tutee needs further diagnostic testing or which skill building materials should be assigned. A complete battery of diagnostic tests would include the testing of phonics, visual memory, word recognition, perception, regressions, reversals, comprehension, vocabulary, organizational and study skills, and reading rate.

If the reading instructor believes that further testing is needed, he indi-

cates to the tutor which of the fourteen available standardized and informal tests should be administered. (These tests are included with the list of videotapes which is given at the end of this article.) The tutor then views the videotape containing the demonstration on how to administer the assigned test, practices administering the test, demonstrates his ability to administer the test, and finally administers it to the tutee. Individual oral diagnostic tests such as the Gilmore Oral Reading Test are reserved for exclusive administration by the reading instructor to students for whom it is appropriate. The reading instructor scores and analyzes each test administered by a reading tutor in order to determine the specific needs of individual tutees.

ASSIGNING SKILL BUILDING MATERIALS

Based on the diagnostic test results, appropriate skill building materials are assigned for the tutee to use with tutor assistance. The materials are divided into ten categories: Phonics, Visual Memory, Word Recognition, Perception (Visual and Auditory Discrimination), Regression, Reversals, Comprehension, Vocabulary, Organizational and Study Skills and Reading Rate. A wide selection of materials is available for each skill area (e.g. thirty distinct items under "Comprehension") which permits flexibility in meeting individual needs. The tutor views the proper videotape under the heading "Explanations of Skill Building Materials Used in Reading Tutoring," and in this manner he masters the correct use of the assigned materials in order to work effectively with the tutee during the quarter and, in many cases, succeeding quarters. As appropriate, various printed forms, directions, record sheets, etc. are available for tutor/tutee use. While they continue to conduct the overall coordination of all the various activities and programs in the Reading Center, the reading instructor and instructional assistant are available for monitoring the tutoring activities and for handling special needs and difficulties as they arise.

VALUES OF THE SYSTEM

This system of videotapes has enabled a limited reading staff to effectively train a corps of reading tutors each quarter and has assured personalized assistance for students using the Reading Center. The training restrictions imposed by varying student schedules, the quarterly changeover of some tutors and the need to train new tutors as more tutees are identified during the quarter are minimized by the convenient and flexible use of the videotapes. The reading tutees can be fully diagnosed to locate specific reading problems and thus be assigned specific skill building materials. At the same time, the tutees receive personalized assistance through the availability of trained tutors. The reading instructor is free to concentrate on special students and supervise the total reading program. The videotaped demonstrations and explanations for each skill building text or program enable the

Reading Center to provide a wide selection of items to meet a wide variety of reading and study skills needs. In summary, the Ohlone College Reading Center has developed an effective system whereby students who need intensive reading diagnosis, prescription of specific skill building materials and tutoring assistance may be assisted in an individualized and personalized manner.

LIST OF READING TUTOR VIDEOTAPES USED IN THE OHLONE COLLEGE READING CENTER

The following list identifies the videotapes and their contents used in training the Ohlone College Reading Center tutors.

1. General Orientation for the Reading Tutor
   A. Sequence of Activities for Reading Tutors
   B. General Comments on Responsibilities, Testing, Prescribed Materials and Availability of Printed and Videotaped Materials
   C. Demonstration on How to Use Audiocassette Recorder (Bell and Howell Model 3040)

2. How to Administer the Wide Range Achievement Test
   A. Explanation and Demonstration on How to Administer the Wide Range Achievement Test
   B. Demonstration on How to Use Audiocassette Recorder (Bell and Howell Model 3040)

3. How to Administer Each Diagnostic Reading Test: Section 1
   A. Niles Battery: Comprehension: Main Ideas
   B. Niles Battery: Comprehension: Written Recall
   C. California Reading Test: Advanced: Form W

4. How to Administer Each Diagnostic Reading Test: Section 2
   A. Stanford Diagnostic: Level II: Form W
   B. Informal Listening Comprehension
   C. Informal Oral/Silent Reading

5. How to Administer Each Diagnostic Reading Test: Section 3
   A. Visual Memory
   B. Niles Word Recognition
   C. California Phonics Survey: Form 1
   D. Noall Phonetic Spelling

6. How to Administer Each Diagnostic Reading Test: Section 4
   A. Dolch List
   B. Morrison-McCall Spelling: List 8
   C. Adult Basic Learning Exam (ABLE)
   D. Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension

7. Explanations of Skill Building Materials Used in Reading Tutoring: Section 1: Phonics
   A. Decoding for Reading
   B. Programmed Phonics
   C. Magnetic Patterns
   D. Sullivan Reading Program
   E. Supplementary Phonics Materials (contains all the other phonics and syllabication materials)

8. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 2: Part 1: Visual Memory and Word Recognition
   A. Visual Memory
   B. Word Recognition

9. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 2: Part 2: Perception, Regression, Reversals
   A. Perception
   B. Anti-Regression
   C. Reversals

10. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 3: Part 1: Comprehension: Reader's Digest—Speed of Interpretation—Sentence Comprehension
    A. Reader's Digest
    B. Speed of Interpretation
    C. Sentence Comprehension

11. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 3: Part 2: Comprehension: Paragraph Comprehension—Critical Reading—Outlining—RFU—Voices—TLR
    A. Paragraph Comprehension
    B. Critical Reading
    C. Outlining Lessons
    D. Reading for Understanding
    E. Voices
    F. Selections
    G. Test Lessons in Reading

12. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 3: Part 3: Comprehension: Analogies—Visual—Language Experience—Book Reports—Request—Vocational
    A. Word Analogies
    B. Visualizing
    C. Language Experience Application
    D. Making Book Reports
    E. Request Procedure
    F. Vocational Materials

13. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 4: Vocabulary
    A. Wordcraft I
    B. Use of Dictionary
    C. Context Clues
    D. EDL Word Clues
    E. Some Techniques for Vocabulary Development
    F. Reading Center Vocabulary Cards
    G. Special Vocabulary Lists
14. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 5: Organizational and Study Skills
    A. Durrel's Outlining
    B. Outlining (Joffe)
    C. Cut-Up Outlines
    D. Videotapes
15. Explanations of Skill Building Materials: Section 6: Reading Rate
    A. Controlled Reader
    B. Craig Reader
    C. Timed Reading
    D. Videotape "Improve Rate"
    E. Phrase Reading
16. General Guidelines for Working with the Reading Tutee
    A. General Guidelines
    B. Importance of Various Reading Skills
    C. Availability of Printed Materials

SELF HELP PACKETS: THEIR DESIGN AND EVALUATION

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The Self-Help Lab was an important aspect of the services provided by RASSL to University of Texas students in 1974-75. The lab consists of a large collection of books, tapes, slides, and some programmed materials. A student lab advisor is always present to help when the lab is open. Until recently, each student who entered the program had an interview with the lab advisor who diagnosed the learning difficulty, helped the student refine his goals, and assembled a variety of lab resources to address the student's concerns. For some, this might consist of an annotated list of references; for others, it was a more ambitious undertaking, possibly involving many study sessions. Each student received a worksheet of attendance records, his individualized program, and blank pages on which to write questions and comments. Lab advisors read and replied with encouragement and suggestions, and usually a lively dialogue ensued. This program seemed ideal; lab advisors, chosen for their personableness as well as for teaching skills, were enthusiastic and dedicated, and a steady stream of students visited the lab every day.

Yet by Spring, 1975, it was apparent that a large number of students who had planned ambitious programs were simply not returning to complete them. Enrollment data for two semesters showed that 40% of those in Self-Help programs used the lab only once or twice. It was obvious that the program needed to be modified. The staff used a variety of informal ways to infer and assess the needs of the students who used the lab, and then began to plan ways to meet these needs. The program component that follows is the result and a schema for evaluation is also presented.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

Our available data led us to assume that because so many programs were abandoned, students need to learn about a topic quickly and at a time when

they express interest in that topic. We also concluded that it was more our need than the students' to respond to stated requests with programs that take many hours to complete. Accordingly, we rank-ordered all our Self-Help topics by popularity. Beginning with the most requested, we used several criteria to develop "Info Packets" for each topic. We wanted each packet to be short enough so that the average reader could complete it in an hour or less. We decided that not only must the packet include an overview of the best available information (in the opinion of the staff) but it must also give the reader some definite ways to begin behavior change if desired. For each packet, this meant that the developer reviewed all the available lab resources on the topic, planned a set of objectives for the student, outlined the means to the end, and began to construct the packet. Our work methods shall not be detailed here as they basically involved such liberties with published materials as to bring down the collective wrath of both authors and the publishing industry upon our heads. But, it may be said with unrepentant pride that we cut and pasted up some of the finest materials west of the Mississippi. In addition, we used many materials developed by our own staff (copies of which could be requested for home study) and made audio tapes. The final products, attractively labeled and packiaged in expanding paper files, were stored on lab shelves where they can be simply handed to students by the lab advisor.

Currently, we have 12 packets: Vocabulary Development, Listening and Notetaking, Test-Taking, GRE, MCAT, LSAT, Reading Efficiency, Research Papers, Concentration, General Study Skills, Spelling, and Resources for Foreign Students.

A student who indicates that he wants to work in Self-Help begins with a packet as soon as he registers, or he may delay starting until a more convenient time. After reading a packet, the student has an interview with the lab advisor and decides whether to terminate at that point or to begin a longer, individualized program. When possible, packets are always used as entry to longer-term programs. Reading Efficiency, for example is a general packet which serves both as an end in itself or as a starting point for programs in rate improvement, critical reading or comprehension.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

At the behest of the Self-Help coordinator, evaluation forms were developed for each packet (to be filled out as soon as the student finishes reading the packet) and formative evaluation begun. We have used our evaluation efforts to change and cognitively strengthen the packets as well as to make them more interesting to students. Rather than describe our efforts, I would prefer to introduce a general working model for any Learning Center staff to use in evaluating any program component. In doing so, I assume evaluation efforts are necessarily different for small programs with line-item budgets than they are for large federally-funded efforts.

In-House Evaluation — Small Programs

1. Extra money does not exist for evaluation efforts.
2. The "evaluator" is likely to be a member of the Learning Center staff.
3. The "evaluator" has minimal or no formal training in research, evaluation or statistical methods.
4. Evaluation is done as a matter of choice or in response to pressure from higher administrators within the system.

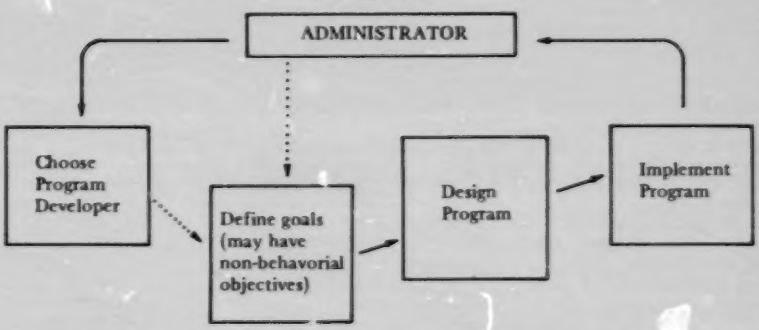
Evaluation — Large Programs

1. Funds specifically for the evaluation effort already exist, usually as a part of a grant.
2. The evaluator is an "expert" temporarily hired for evaluation only. Sometimes he is completely external and conducts the evaluation away from the site of the original project.
3. The evaluator is a highly skilled professional with extensive methodological training.
4. Evaluation is a requirement of most federally — and privately — funded, large grants.

The evaluator is a figure who must of necessity remain as objective as possible and external to the development of the process or product under study. His role is to get information about the merit and effectiveness of a product or process to the decision-makers who then must change, implement, adopt or abandon it.

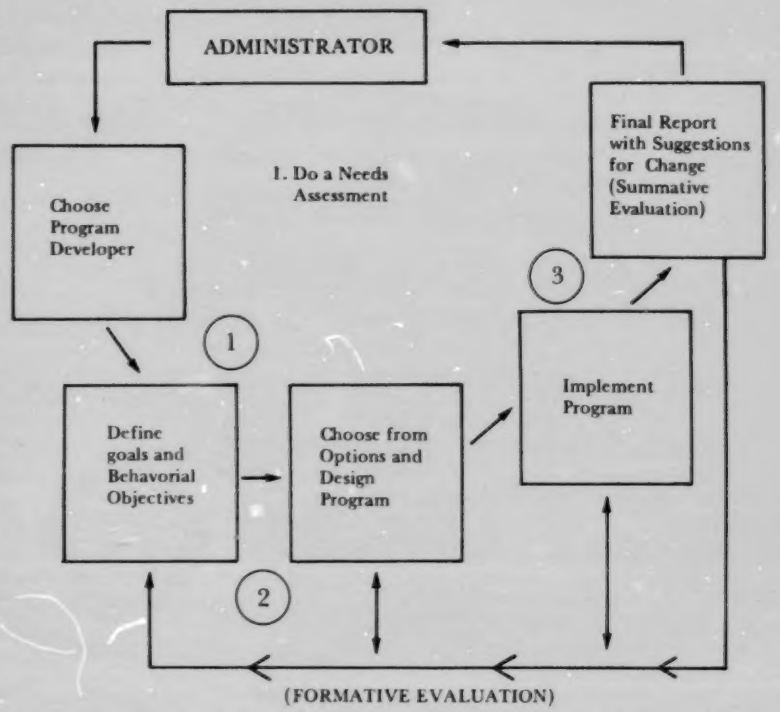
With a Learning Center, I would like to suggest that evaluation efforts will prove valuable any time a new program component is considered that would take significant amount of time, budget, or investment of professional staff. What follows is a model for the evaluation of a component rather than a total program and some commentary to amplify it.

Figure 1



What normally happens in program development is described in Figure 1. Someone (the program developer) gets a bright idea which may or may not be in response to student needs. "Objectives" are frequently emotional rather than behavioral ("Gee, I'd *love* to see us do this."). The program is developed and implemented and exists or fails on the basis of presence or lack of presence of student or administrative support. Change is reactive, and occurs primarily as a response to external press.

Figure 2
A PROACTIVE, SYSTEMATIC PROGRAM MODEL



2. Generate options for Program (materials, time and space requirements)

3. Assess Outcomes
   a) student satisfaction
   b) staff satisfaction
   c) objective test results

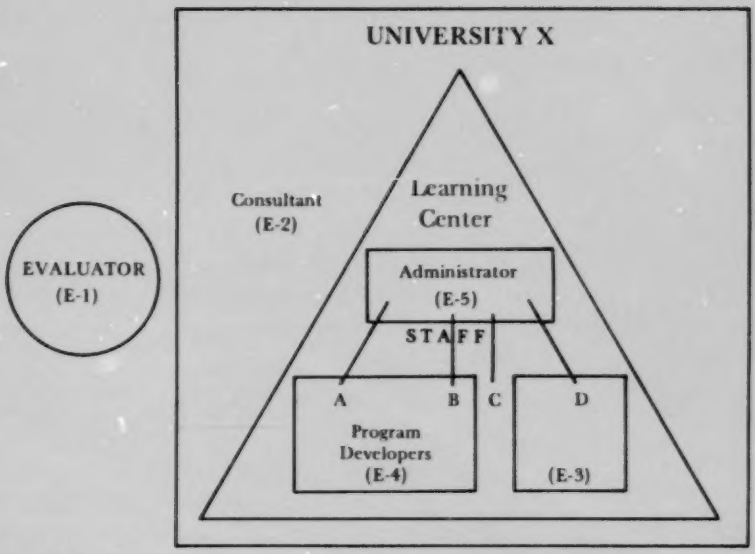
The systematic model, which includes evaluation, adds a system of checks and balances. It begins the same way. Somebody gets a bright idea, but checks this with some type of need assessment to see if the population to be served needs or wants this innovation. Or, ideally, the needs assessment preceeds the bright idea and serves to discover what a given group wants/needs. Given the data from the needs assessment, the program developer first develops a set of behavioral objectives for students which can be measured using corresponding evaluation questions. In other words, ways to evaluate how one's goals have been reached are selected at the same time ways to reach those goals are being developed. Program development and implementation takes place next. Preliminary criteria are examined and perhaps some data is analyzed to see if the program is on the right track (formative evaluation). The program developer and the administrators use this information to change the program appropriately. Finally, a summative evaluation is undertaken to provide information as to the worth of the entire package. Ideally, if formative evaluation has been done well and the component revised accordingly, the result of the summative evaluation will confirm the collective results of formative evaluation. All information is forwarded to the decision-makers for their use.

WHO SHOULD THE EVALUATOR BE?

The evaluator is often in a difficult position. It is he who provides an assessment of worth of a program and he who is able to determine whether desired program outcomes have been achieved. Frequently, he threatens both program developers and administrators, especially if they do not clearly understand and support his function. Because of this, the best possible way to perform evaluation functions is to hire a qualified outside expert. For small programs on permanent budgets, special evaluation funds are not often available, in which case the next best step is to contract with a consultant within the institution to perform the evaluation. If this is not feasible, then a staff that wishes to do evaluation must choose from among its own members. Disadvantages of this are lack of objectivity and possibly lack of evaluation expertise. Advantages include thorough knowledge of the organization and its values which must be taught to the outside evaluator before he can begin his job. When the evaluation is performed by permanent staff within an organization, personality variables as well as skills become prime considerations. If there is a trusted, non-divisive, and reasonably objective staff member who would neither undermine nor be coopted by the projected, then it would be wise to use this person. Less desirable would be for the program developers to function as evaluators. If this must be the case, it will probably be easier for them to deal with empirically-gathered, quantifiable data. Last, and undesirable, would be for the administrator, the person who must make ultimate decisions about program viability, to be placed in the position of generating and interpreting the data he will use.

To the extent the level of skills in evaluation methods decreases, the

Figure 3



E = Evaluator
Numbers 1 to 5 indicate order of desirability with 1 being most desirable.

methodology chosen to measure the criteria of success should be made simple and understandable. A professional might choose to do a sophisticated statistical analysis of data which he then summarizes and presents to the decision-makers in a clear and usable fashion. But the untrained staff member who undertakes an evaluation effort needs to use measurements that he can handle given his own skills or range of consultation. Simple, accurate evaluation is better than no evaluation.

At RASSL, we have learned a lot from our formative evaluation of Info Packets. Our incomplete data has enalbed us thus far to make important changes in the materials and the format of packets. We now have new information about the differences between motivation and willingness to persevere of those who have read the packets, and we have learned that this differs, topic by topic. Some of what we have learned was no surprise, but much was new and unsettling and demanded that we change.

ADULT BASIC EDUCATION: A MANDATE FOR TEACHER TRAINING

Ruth Graham May
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Edward L. Thorndike (4), the "father" of adult education, asserted in 1928 that all adults can learn, that they can learn all they need to, and that the quality of their learning is substantial. Since that time adult education has taken tremendous strides, and the present era is characterized by rapid expansion of adult education programs, professionalism in the field, and the expansion of graduate programs in colleges and universities for the training of adult educators.

In the state of California the growth in adult education has been startling. Dr. Xavier Del Buono, associate superintendent of Public Instruction and manager of Adult and Community Education, recently reported: "We are the fastest growing area of education in the state. In the last three years, we have experienced an increase of enrollment unparalleled in education — 9% in 1973, 11% in 1974, and 25% in 1975." (2) California's enrollment in adult education classes now exceeds two million, with about half of the enrollees in Los Angeles and Orange Counties.

California has a diversified program offering educational services to a wide range of clients and meeting many community educational needs. Large numbers of these persons attend school to gain basic education skills or to earn either an eighth grade or high school diploma. Many return to school to gain proficiency in the skills that will better equip them for employment. Many return to prepare themselves to participate in their roles as citizens and as consumers.

Most of us are aware of the report made public some months ago by the United States Office of Education on the results of a four-year investigation conducted for the government by the University of Texas at Austin. (3) The research, headed by Dr. Norwell Northcutt, resulted in a redefinition of the

concept of literacy and provided new estimates of illiteracy for the United States. The purpose of the APL Study (Adult Performance Level) was to determine to what extent adults in this country have a mastery of the information they need to function at a reasonably successful level in their everyday lives. The research evidence indicated that about 20% of Americans lack the necessary skills to handle day-to-day life — not because they cannot read but because they cannot understand what they read. In short, twenty-three million Americans are functionally incompetent.

One of the reasons for the problems of many of these adults — particularly in regions of diverse ethnic population such as California — is limited ability of many of the adults to use the English languge. California boasts of approximately five million persons (or 22%) out of a total population of twenty-one million who are of ethnic minorities. In Los Angeles and Orange counties, the percentage of ethnic minorities is almost 30% of the total population. For many of these persons, coping in day-to-day living is severely hampered by language problems, to say nothing of social and economic deprivation.

NEED FOR TRAINING OF ADULT EDUCATION TEACHERS

The need for teacher preparation is recognized most emphatically at the elementary and secondary school levels. However, adult education teacher-preparation programs, especially in California, are limited. The critical need to provide basic education training for large numbers of adults has resulted in the hiring of many persons who are not trained in the field but have specialized in other education areas; thus many people enter the field — especially in adult basic education — through the "back door."

The Institute for Reading at California State University, Fullerton, in the spring of 1975, attempted to identify the training needs of ABE personnel in the Orange County area through a survey. Respondents were asked to provide information regarding the kind of training they had and the extent of their interest in further training in the field of ABE. The results of the survey indicated a definite interest in training for both pre-service and inservice personnel in adult basic education. Since there were experienced faculty available to offer training, the School of Education prepared a proposal which was submitted to the California State Department of Education for a teacher training grant in Adult Basic Education, and the grant was funded by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, under the Adult Education State Grant Program (Public Law 93-380, Section 309). The program began in September 1975.

THE TEACHER TRAINING PROJECT IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

The program of the Teacher Training Project in Adult Basic Education is a unique endeavor to meet the instructional needs of persons who teach elementary subjects and English-as-a-second-language to adults. The major goals of the project are as follows:

1. By the completion of the program, participants will have attained competence in teaching adult basic education and ESL to adults.
2. By the completion of the program, participants will feel that the training received has directly affected their teaching performance in a positive direction.
3. By the completion of the program, participants will know of and plan to participate in the continuing inservice opportunities at local, state and national levels available to them as adult basic education teachers.

Since this is a relatively new field of training, the establishment of the program involved many phases: formulating specific objectives for the training; developing courses to meet these objectives; engaging faculty and arranging for facilities and training sites; recruiting participants; planning formative and summative evaluation of the project; and arranging for dissemination of project information and results.

Although the project was originally designed to meet the training needs of ABE teachers in the Orange County area, it was modified at the request of the State Department of Education to include the areas of Los Angeles and Long Beach as well.

There are two dimensions to the program, now in progress:

1. Core courses and electives for 25 participants who are to be certified in Adult Basic Education. The courses are practical and emphasize methodology in teaching adults with limited English-speaking ability and those who are economically and/or socially disadvantaged. The project pays the total cost of tuition and books for the selected participants.
2. In-service courses in ABE which are open to all community adult education personnel. These courses are offered as one unit courses, workshops and weekend institutes. Through the project grant, two-thirds of the cost of these courses is covered for those persons engaged in ABE.

STRUCTURING THE PROJECT IN THE FIRST YEAR

A program of training, with specific objectives, was developed and twenty-six training competencies identified. Five-core courses and a series of one-unit mini-courses were developed to meet the program objectives. In order to make the learning setting more realistic and also to make the training accessible to ABE personnel throughout the community, many of the one-unit courses and workshops were scheduled in community adult schools. Although some experienced faculty were available in the School of Education, additional teaching faculty were recruited from among experienced teachers and leaders in the field of ABE. These persons are now serving as a vital link with the on-going community program.

Dissemination of information about the project grant was accomplished through flyers, brochures, news releases, letters to professional organizations, and personal contacts. Forty-one applications were filed. In selecting the candidates, all applications were reviewed by the project director, the project faculty and the coordinator of the Institute for Reading. Participants

were selected on the basis of the following criteria: possession of the baccalaureate degree; experience in teaching ABE; and quality of experience and leadership potential as attested to by a letter of recommendation from an ABE administrator.

Twenty-seven persons were accepted into the program and completed the first semester of training. Four of them have since had to withdraw from the program due to job changes, illness, or unusual family/work responsibilities. The participants come from a wide geographical area and represent 12 school districts, including: Los Angeles Unified, Compton, South Bay, Huntington Beach, Rancho Santiago, Garden Grove, Corona, Montebello and Alhambra. Some of the participants work in regular adult schools, others in occupational centers, and still others in rehabilitation facilities. Of the present 23 participants, 7 are male and 16 female. Ethnically the group is made up of 2 Mexican-American, 1 other Latin, 4 Black, 1 Lebanese, 1 Asian-American and 13 Anglo-Americans. Twelve of them have masters degrees or are candidates for the master degree in fields other than Adult Education.

The development of the project has been accomplished through coordination and cooperation with many community agencies. Administrators of adult education programs have helped to publicize the training program and have encouraged and enabled their ABE faculty to participate. They have also offered their facilities for the scheduling of classes and for fieldwork. One of the ways of insuring the professional assistance and cooperation of a variety of adult educators in community agencies was through the formation of a project Advisory Committee. This ten-member committee meets periodically with the project faculty and university administrators in an effort to provide two-way communication about the planning and implementation of the project.

Courses and Competencies

The five courses, which are required of the project participants, are offered during the fall and spring semesters as well as the summer session. The core courses are *Principles and Methods in Adult Basic Education, Teaching Reading to the ABE Student, The Adult Basic Education Student – Life Styles and Coping Skills, Teaching English as a Second Language to Adults,* and *Fieldwork in Adult Basic Education.*

The courses are competency-based. They emphasize practicality and the participants are encouraged to visit, observe, engage in small group and large group activities, and attend professional conferences. The instruction utilizes guest lecturers, audio-visual media, and role playing, and encourages curriculum development and research in ABE. The fieldwork, which is the culmination of the year-long program, will give the participants the opportunity to synthesize their learning and apply it in a teaching situation.

In addition to the core courses, the participants must take a minimum of three one-unit courses to receive certification. These courses are also competency-based. A few of the one-unit courses offered are: *Establishing Adult Learning Centers, Teaching Reading to Exceptional Adults, Materials*

and Techniques in Consumer Education, Leadership Skills and Group Dynamics for the Adult, Research in Adult Basic Education, and *Teaching Computational Skills to Adults.*

Some Outcomes of the Project

During this first program year, the project director, faculty, and participants have been actively involved in professional conferences related to ABE. Many of the participants have joined professional organizations, including the Western College Reading Association and the California Council for Adult Education, because of the benefits they perceive to their professional growth from membership in these organizations. Some have been asked to conduct inservice classes for groups in their districts. Because of their own growth in becoming more effective teachers, their leadership abilities and their interest in research in the field, it is anticipated that many of these first-year participants will be future leaders in ABE.

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT

An evaluation team was engaged to develop a model and conduct both formative and summative evaluation of the project. Recognizing the limitations set by the several innovative aspects of the program, the evaluation concerns itself primarily with expectations which can reasonably be accomplished in one year. In addition, the evaluation procedures seek to follow a pattern that might be utilized in other projects of a similar nature where there are no standardized tests available and no way of making a comparative field study under controlled conditions. The evaluation problem is twofold:

1. To identify and describe the nature of the program that was designed and is being implemented.
2. To determine the degree to which stated objectives are being achieved.

Each semster, including the summer session, is being considered as an assessment period. A plan of monitoring and and analyzing the results of the project enables the entire professional staff, students, consultants, and representatives of outside agencies to become involved in the assessment of all aspects of the program: 1) input program plans (including identification of needs, development of objectives and courses, and utilization of personnel); 2) program implementation; and 3) program outcomes (evidence of growth — the impact of the training program on the teachers). The fourth component of the evaluation model is the assessment of procedures and activities as they are formed, implemented in the program, and subsequently accepted, revised, or rejected in the light of experience.

At the end of the program year a final evaluation report will be available which will include the evaluation instruments which were designed and utilized to obtain the above data.

It is anticipated that this training program will be offered again during 1976-77, and it will continue to expand and serve as a valuable model for adult education training programs at other colleges and universities.

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FIFTY WAYS TO HELP YOUR STUDENTS

Elinor M. Michel
University of Idaho

If my reading and study skills class at the University of Idaho are similar to those in other colleges, then study skills instructors must spend much of their time devising new plans to fit each new group of students. I would like to share four of the plans I use in the study skills portion of my classes.

VISUAL AIDS IN CLASS

My first plan involves the use some kind of visual aid, even if it is only an overhead transparency or the blackboard. Just listening to an explanation of note-taking skills can be somewhat boring to the student who is not really certain he wants to learn to take notes anyway. Bringing as many visual aids as possible into the classroom helps the non-motivated student. When I teach students to index lecture notes, I write some lecture notes on a transparency. Then I demonstrate how to do the indexing. Students seem to understand the process more easily when they can see someone else doing it. I frequently type a transparency illustrating a total skill, for example, the steps in the SQ3R method. To clarify a step students are having trouble with, I type the explanation on a primary typewriter and make a transparency. When I use visual aids, students take more interest and tend to ask questions if they still do not understand.

I have found slide and tape presentations on various skills, such as SQ3R and note-taking, useful in presenting a new skill. I have even used short films as a stimulus for writing paragraphs following a specific pattern of development. "Ersatz," a short Yugoslavian academy award-winning cartoon, is thought-provoking, and students can easily express their reasons for either liking or disliking it. Since learning to write well-developed paragraphs in a short period of time helps a student in essay test writing, it is class time well spent.

PROOF THAT STUDY SKILLS WORK

My second plan concerns demonstrating that study skills actually work since my students often want proof. If the class exercise is convincing, the students eagerly apply the skills outside class and come back anxious to learn the next strategy. The instructor's effort in demonstrating the success of a particular skill is very important.I attempt, for example, to convince students that surveying is worthwhile. Since many articles' main ideas are in the first sentence of each paragraph, I begin with a transparency of a two-page article. This presentation is immediately followed by a transparency of just the first sentences in each paragraph. The students read these sentences and answer ten comprehension questions. Most students are amazed to find they can score a minimum of 70% without completely reading the article.

When I try to convince students that the *write* and *recite* steps in the SQ3R study method are probably the most effective methods for really learning and remembering information, I use a different technique. I have reproduced two 1000-word readings from Donald E.P. Smith's book *Learning to Learn*. Each reading reflects the same level of difficulty. I have all students read the first article and then answer ten comprehension questions. Then I have half the class read the second article but also recite a series of quesitons and answers I have prepared using the double-column format. Afterwards, both groups answer the same questions. The first group usually finds no significant difference in the comprehension scores of the first and second reading. However, the half that recited the questions and answers usually finds its second set of scores anywhere from 10% to 50% higher than the first set.

When I want to illustrate the value of weekly review, I send half the students home with the questions and answers, and ask them to recite them two or three times before the next class. The other half of the class has recited the questions and answers in class, but does not take them home nor review. Again both groups answer the comprehension questions. The group systematically reviewing through recitation generally scores higher than the group without review.

Finally, I have developed classroom exercises to help students learn new strategies. For example, when I teach students to ask questions as they read, I use the following exercise:

Make up three questions for each paragraph. The subject is underlined for you.

1. _____
_____
_____
2. _____
_____
_____

The government's first attempts to provide communication facilities for westerners were hardly successful. In 1848 contracts were awarded for semi-monthly mail service between New York and San Francisco

3. _____
_____
_____

by sea; under the arrangement, letters were carried to Panama by the U.S. Steamship Company,ncarted across the isthmus, and sent northward on vessels of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. The high costs and the thirty days required for the roundabout trip only stimulated California's demand for overland service.

As students try to write questions for each paragraph, they quickly learn that questions such as "Did (or has) the government's first attempt at mail service succeed (succeeded)?" do not provide much information (answer is "no"), and they begin to use questions based on interrogative words: 1) who, what, when, where? 2)how? 3) why? The answers to questions based on these three types of words provide a student with three different levels of knowledge: the first is basically factual; the second relates to processes or operations; the third explains the significance or importance of the subject. Later in the course, I relate these three question levels to the types of knowledge needed to succeed on different types of exams.

STUDENT APPLICATION OF SKILLS

After skills and strategies have been demonstrated in class, students need to apply these skills. A class contract is one way to accomplish this. For students to receive a grade in the class, they agree to apply skills taught to other subjects. They record the skills they try and the time it takes to do them. If they want an "A," they have to show (through indexed notes, written questions and answers on the textbook chapters, marginal notes in textbooks, math problems, predicted test questions, etc.) that they have applied the skills for six hours every week. The number of required hours decreases as the grade drops.

Another way for students to apply skills is through out-of-class assignments related to their other studies. I begin the unit on test-taking preparation by explaining the basic meanings of test direction words and how they relate to the interrogative words used in formulating questions. For example, *define* basically asks for factual information and relates to the who or what question asked in SQ3R. The words *compare* and *contrast* basically ask for the relationship between ideas and frequently relate to the how question. Words like *evaluate* or *analyze* ask for the importance of information and relate to the why question.

Once students begin to understand test direction words, they are ready to apply the skills in studying for exams. First, for their own classes, they predict two test questions on each level. In class, we analyze a few questions

from some recent exam, trying to see what type of knowledge is required for that test. Here are two questions from a freshman-level political science exam:

1. The 1966 Supreme Court case which led to the establishment of comprehensive new procedures aimed at protecting the rights of the criminally accused was
   A. *Miranda v. Arizona*
   B. *Mapp v. Ohio*
   C. *Wesbury v. Sanders*
   D. *Palko v. Connecticut*

2. *The decision in* **Miller v. California** *was a victory for civil libertarians.*
   T or F

Number 1 requires knowledge of the basic facts. The answer depends on the who, what, when and where in SQ3R. It requires knowledge of what the Miranda v. Arizona case did for criminals. The second question seeks a greater depth of understanding than did the first. It requires that the student know what the *Miller v. California* case is and why that case is important. The answer depends on the why question. After analyzing a sample test, students begin to realize that they will not do well on an exam if they study only basic facts (whats) when the test is looking or hows and whys. Students also analyze old tests from their own classes to begin to understand what type of knowledge their instructors are seeking.

INSTRUCTOR EVALUATION OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

After students have used these skills, in class and on their studies, instructors need to evaluate their teaching and their students' learning. This is accomplished through a mid-term exam consisting of three parts:

1) The objective test section with questions based on theories of effective scheduling, note-taking, textbook reading, test-taking preparation, and paragraph structure and development.

2) The application of skills section to show whether students can apply study skills to various types of materials. Using a student's simulated class schedule, students devise a weekly study schedule. They find main ideas, signal words, and supporting details in paragraphs, and identify the method of paragraph development. They read a two page article and write questions based on headings, and write answers to the questions using the double-column format. After they recite the questions and answers,they take a comprehension quiz without their notes.

3) The essay test section where students choose one of two essay questions which could ask them to explain steps in a study procedure or to analyze test questions. Each essay question asks the students to illustrate their discussion with examples from their own study experiences. The students have two

hours in which to work, and they must pass with at least a "C-" to receive their contracted grade.

These are a few ways I try to help my students with study skills. If study skills instructors are to succeed with students, they must often use textbook materials in innovative ways.

NATIVE AMERICAN CULTURE

James Oakman, Sr.

This is a presentation on Native American culture and language. In my view, they cannot be separated. Language is an expression of culture. Cultural interference patterns arise because of the differences between Indian and Anglo cultures.

Native Americans generally live in isolated areas. Their culture is one of isolation from not only outside but from each other. Small, single family units live at great distances from one another because no one area of the reservation can support a large number of people.

Their entire life is wrapped up in their naturalistic religion. All animals, trees, and plants have a personality, an identify, a reason for being. The Native Americans think of themselves as just another entity in the whole sphere of creation.

FAMILIES

Indian families are the epitome of the concept of the extended family. If one looks at the Indian family from an Indo-European frame of reference, it is a matriarchal society – one where the mother is the authority in the home. But at the same time, the father, within the family, is the Court of Last Resort. He has the final say in everything, thus negating the view it is a matriarchal society. The authority rests in the father, not the mother. It is a system which defies explanation in Indo-European terms. Indian society is definitely a matrilineal one; that is, all the inheritance is through the mother.

In a Native American family, the word for "mother" does not have the same meaning as in Indo-European cultures. An Indian "mother" is a woman who has a specific, mother-like relationship with the child. A woman who may or may not be a blood relative, teaches the child how to sew — this woman is called "mother." Another woman, who teaches the child how to

cook, and a woman who teaches the child the art of weaving are each called "mother". The Indian "mother," therefore, is a relationship which need not be one of blood.

Fathers are very well-defined. An Indian child has only one father, his natural one. Grandparents, however, take on the same role or concept as mothers. A child may have ten grandmothers and fourteen grandfathers. Therefore, a young Indian boy meeting the English word "mother" will not understand the concept of a single person as mother. After all, he has three or four mothers, and, to him, they are all real ones.

Aunts and uncles also have the same concept as mothers and it is hard for an Anglo to understand how one person can have a different relationship with each child in the same family. In Native American cultures, this relationship is extremely well-defined, and clearly understood by all Indian children.

Native Americans also believe that a person is a child only once in his life. Childhood is a time that should be enjoyed; it is a time when the child learns a great deal, but the point of learning is secondary to the idea of a carefree existence.

Children are guided in their play into something constructive. They are never forced or told or ordered or commanded. For example, the child is never told "You have to do this" or "You must do that." He is not even told this by implication. There are very few commands in the Indian languages, and the Anglo, who wants to say "I must be there at two o'clock" is hard put to translate this idea into any of the Indian languages since there is no "have to" about life in the Native American cultures. This attitude toward commands contrasts to the life of the Anglo child who learns, practically as his first word, the command "NO!" From then on, his life is one command after another: "Do this!" "Do that!" "Go there!" "Come here!"

When a need for major discipline arises among Native Americans, the discipline is always handled by someone other than the titled mothers, father, grandparents. Generally, it is handled by a male, blood relative — an uncle on the mother's side if possible. This discipline is uniquely non- Indo-European. The Indian child is never disciplined in such a way as to be told "You should never . . . You should not . . ." Instead, the Indian child is told, When you do what you did, you have . . .

1) hurt someone in your family (physically or otherwise)

2) hurt an animal or plant or some other object

3) hurt one of the spirits or with resulting consequences.

The child learns through discipline that when he does something wrong, his wrongdoing affects other people or entities and also results in some sort of disciplinary action. Depending on the seriousness of the offense, disciplinary action could be 1) having to apologize, 2) giving some sort of atonement for his wrongdoing, 3) losing some privilege the child has, or 4) being ostracized from the family or from one individual for a limited period of time. Almost never is there any corporal punishment. How can you punish the child for hurting someone by hurting him?

Children are taught throughout their whole lives what they should and should not do, but there are no definable stages in this teaching. Each child is accepted by his family as an individual. There is no comparing between children. The child is taught something when he is ready to learn it, not before. There is no standardization for teaching children anything.

PROBLEMS IN AN ANGLO SCHOOL

In Anglo schools, the student is often penalized for not being "ready" by getting a failing grade. Our whole concept of education is one that insists that a student is ready to do a specific task at a specific age. If the student can't do the task, he is failed.

To the Native American, success and failure are meaningless terms. Success is doing as much as you can. If you don't try something, you haven't failed; you are simply not ready. The general Anglo attitude is if at first you don't succeed, try, try, try again. The Indian says: I didn't succeed this time because I wasn't ready. The Anglo interprets this attitude on the part of the Indian laziness. However, the Indian undoubtedly has the better mental attitude.

The Indian student, moreover, has been taught that even though he may disagree with his elders,he must still respect what the elders say because of their age and experience. He is also taught to sit and listen. "Listen to your elders and you will be able to learn from their experiences. You cannot question experience. If you have not experienced it yourself, and your elder has, how can you question it?"

When this same student attends an Anglo school, he is told, "Never accept what the teacher says without questioning it. Participate in class. You learn more from others like yourself than you do from one who has more experience." Needless to say, the Native American student is caught in a conflict between his culture and the Anglo educational system. What he learns in school is diametrically opposed to what he learned at home, and he doesn't know how to handle it.

TIME ORIENTATION

The Native American has a definable sense of time which is understood in his own culture. To the Anglo, however, this sense of time is undefinable. In fact, Indian time cannot be translated and is capable of being understood only in context. In the traditional Indian cultures, there is a word for the past and a word for the present. The past is anything that has happened. There are no "ages" or "eras" in the Indian languages. The individual Indian considers the recent past as that which has happened in his lifetime; anything else is distant past and is time related to significant events in their own history: after the Long Walk, before the Battle of Wounded Knee, at the time of the Little Big Horn, whereas the Anglo deals with precise dates: 72 years ago, during the Neolithic Age, in 1864.

In Indian coversation, one person makes reference to an event that both

parties know occurred after the Great Snow. That is an implied, clear, time reference; there is no need to say in 1880, 1888 or 1891.

As for the present, the Native American takes a fatalistic view of life in terms of Indo-European culture. A young man in his teens, in obvious good health, is pretty well assured he will live to adulthood. He will probably live to see his children reach their teens. That is as far into the future as he can see at the moment. The average life span of Native Americans is 50 years. This attitude of supposed fatalism gives to the non-Indian the appearance that the Indian thinks of the immediate present only. No one — Navajo, German, Apache, Papago, English — can honestly say that they can think of terms of twenty years from now.

The Indian, in looking at the future, considers all the "If's" that may come across the years. The Anglo ignores the "If's" and speaks as though he were superman. It is this attitude that leads anthropologists to say the Anglo is future oriented and the Indian is present oriented. The Anglo thinks of the future as if it were a definite thing which he has control over. The Indian says "How can you be so definite about something that hasn't happened yet with all the "If's" that can come up?"

GRADES

The Indian says "What I have is mine. But what is mine must be shared with others. Thus, I can't have more than anyone else or I would be depriving someone of something they need." This idea carries over into grades. To the Native American, the only difference between your position and mine (teacher and student. employed and unemployed) is an accident. You happened to be in the right place at the right time. In academic work you may be a little more advanced, a little more adaptable than I am or it could be reversed. I am not a better person than you. To show that I am not selfish or egotistical, I do not want to appear that I may be better than you. Therefore, if you get a "C" in this class, I'd be just as happy to get one, too. I know that I'm better than you are in this class. I don't have to hit you over the head with it. So, if I get the same grade you do, what difference does it make? It boosts your ego, and you say "Look what I have accomplished!" I'm helping you feel better.

To work for a top grade in a classroom means that I have to be better than everybody else. I may be, but I don't have to show it. Since most classes are run on a curve — so many A's, so many B's — for me to get an A means that someone else won't. He'll have to get a B. I have to hurt someone else for the personal satisfaction of getting an A. This I have been taught not to do. But, the Anglo says this is proper for me to do.

Here is a very specific cultural conflict that helps explain why some Indian students do not appear to be concerned with grades. The Indian student is conditioned not to hurt someone else by forcing him to receive a lower grade.

In the Anglo culture, the person who receives an A is considered more successful than the one who receives a C. At the same time, the Anglo

culture, overtly or covertly, stresses the point that we should all strive to be average — the "average American." "Show your individuality, but do it within these boundaries. Anything outside of these boundaries is wrong." But within the school, the student is told not to be average. The student must be above average to be successful. The Native American student sees this dichotomy between what the Anglo says he wants done and what he expects to be done. The Indian student is confused; he does not know what to do.

The Indian student meets further dichotomies in the Engish language.There are over 100 definitions for the word "run." A child in kindergarten or the first grade learns to print and/or write his name. Then, confusion starts. Today, he writes his first name, then his last name. Tomorrow, he writes his last name first, and his first name last. He wonders why the Anglo can't make up his mind. There is, to the Indian student, no pattern to English. This confusion exists into adulthood. Can you imagine what an Indian child thinks when he first meets that time-honored phrase: "Two vowels go walking, the first one does the talking . . ., except, except, except . . ."?

These are just some of the dichotomies one must learn in studying a second language. When one has to learn a second culture as well, it becomes totally confusing for the individual.

EYE CONTACT

The body language of most Native Americans is different from that of the Anglo. In Anglo society it is considered proper to face the person you are speaking to and to look him "straight in the eye." In most Indian cultures, looking straight at a person is to give that person the grossest insult. Conversations are carried on with the individual looking anywhere but at the other party, even to the extent of turning one's back while continuing the coversation.

CONCLUSION

The cultural conflicts that handicap Indian students can be overcome only by their instructors' awareness and understanding of that culture. As stated at the beginning of this paper, the cultures of the American Indians are an expression of their various languages. In order to understand the difficulties the Indian student faces, you must understand that he comes from a culture that is not always translatable into Indo-European language terms. The young Indian students ask that you accept them as they are, for what they are, that being different from you by way of heritage does not make them inferior, nor superior.

MODIFYING INNER SPEECH: A COGNITIVE BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION TECHNIQUE FOR LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Unfortunately some of our major procedures, like the reading process and the writing process, are not well enough understood so that we can sequence the procedure for a learning-disabled student. We teach students about reading and writing, *but we can't teach them how to proceed in all cases because we really don't know exactly how it's done.*

Historically, behavior modification first became prominent as a spate of direct de-conditioning techniques in which external events were manipulated to re-enforce or extinguish target behaviors. We are all familiar with the use of M&M's or electric shock. These direct de-conditioning techniques derived from classical conditioning theory and animal experimentation. However, even Pavlov late in his life, acknowledged that for humans, the faculty of language, "a second signal system," was equally effective in influencing behavior immediately without the gradual process of conditioning by other physical stimuli (4). Language, then, functions as a powerful mediator which frees the human from dependence on immediate events in the environment. It allows planning, voluntary behavior and verbal control over behavior. This latter insight gave rise to a host of mediated behavior modification techniques through language therapies (14).

Of these language therapies, one of the most promising to come to our attention is the modification of behavior through the internal mediator that Vygotsky called "inner speech". In contrast to Piaget (13), Vygotsky maintained in his theory of language development that speech is social in its origin, but then follows a dual developmental pattern in the maturing child

— one branch of speech develops as a communicative function — "speech for others," while the other developmental function is ego-centric speech — "speech for oneself" — which ultimately becomes internalized about age seven and remains as "inner speech" — that faculty which predicates behavior, predominantly in those situations where difficulties are encountered (16). *The implication is that the "inner speech" process mediates between external events and decisions that affect action in response to the external cues.* In its character, "inner speech" is very different from social speech; it is greatly abbreviated and consists primarily of predicates, largely because it serves a directive purpose. Consequently, this notion offers a fruitful area for intervention — and one which seems particularly appropriate for learning-disabled students, who seem notoriously lacking in effective inner direction.

THE TRAINING PARADIGM

The idea of modifying behavior through internal dialogue is not a new one. It is as old as Coue (3). It is central to Ellis's Rational-Emotive Therapy (5). It is apparent in the work of Bandura (1) and Kelly (7). Eric Berne also speaks of "voices in the head." (2)

However, a newer very promising procedure has been developed by Donald Meichenbaum which, experimental evidence indicates, is briefer, generalizes better, and is longer lasting than some of the other verbal therapies (8). It seems to be a superior procedure because it combines the advantages of cognitive re-structuring, modeling, shaping and self-reinforcement. Meichenbaum has had considerable success using it in work with impulsive children, test-anxious students, speech-anxious clients, and habitual smokers as well as schizophrenics.

The technique that Meichenbaum (11, 12, 13) developed is based on the work of Luria (10), who proposed that voluntary motor behavior in children came under verbal control in three phases: Phase one, where the child's behavior is directed by adult speech; Phase two, where the child's own oral speech regulated his behavior; and, finally, Phase 3, when the child's inner speech assumed the guiding role. Consequently, Meichenbaum's training techniques proceed in precisely the same sequence suggested by Luria, once the target behavior has been isolated and the negative self-statements have been elicited.

The procedure is as follows: The trainer describes the behavior while performing it and re-enforces for completion; then the client performs while rehearsing (thinking out loud) the directions with the trainer correcting when necessary; the client performs the task while rehearsing in a whisper, and finally, the client performs the task while rehearsing the instructions silently, including the self-reinforcement for completion.

When the target behavior becomes automatic, the sequence can be shortened to fewer steps. Meichenbaum points out that it is essential to the success of the process that the client actively respond to the directions that he verbalizes. Otherwise, the process becomes reduced to a passive mumbling of words (12).

APPLICATION TO LEARNING-DISABLED STUDENTS

Inspired by Meichenbaum's work, I chose as my initial population for the application of this technique those students whom we would term "learning disabled" — students of better than average intelligence and high motivation who are unable to perform adequately given the usual sequences of instruction in either the classroom or the learning center. While the hyperkinesis apparent in many learning-disabled children seldom is present in these adult students, nevertheless, the characteristics of high anxiety, low self-image, distractability, and enormous need for structure persist. These are, undoubtedly, the most frustrating group of students with whom we work, and neither of the classic treatments — drug therapy nor a rigidly controlled stimulus-free environment — is appropriate for application by a learning center counselor. In addition, these students carry a particularly poignant aura of mystification — and they really are mystified, because they do try to follow procedures that other students appear to use, yet they seldom have the same success.

The key insight came from Gagne (6) who says "a good learner generates instructions." It is my contention that this is the significant ability that is missing in the learning disabled student. He does not seem to be able to take information given and apply it to a task or a problem without prior structure. This, I believe, is why the self-instructional paradigm is so useful to him. The primary advantages of this technique is that it provides the student with a repetoire of adaptive self-instructions that lead to successful action, while at the same time it blocks intrusion of non-facilitative thoughts.

CASE ILLUSTRATIONS

Case No. 1: Female, age 18. She had been identified in her early school years as "dyslexic". Even though our diagnostic tests indicated that her comprehension in both reading and listening materials was more than adequate and that her writing was coherent, she continually interrupted every task she was doing in the learning center and was sure there was still "something wrong" with her. Since she was already in a therapy situation for exploration of the persistence of this behavior, my appropriate role was that of helping her to succeed in the academic tasks. She clearly had the skills necessary to perform. What was important to change was the negative self-statement that was blocking her.

The first procedure was to have her image a red street sign and say "Stop" any time the "something wrong" thought intruded. We moved next to the neutral statement, "I may be able to do this job"; and, finally at the end of the task, to the positive re-enforcing self-statement, "I really did the whole thing. I'm o.k.!" The total time involved for the combination of self instructional

training and study skills work was two one-hour sessions. At the end of this time, this young woman was able to complete her term paper with only two brief telephone consultations for minor advising on questions of format.

Case No. 2: Male, age 20. He suffered from the very common student complaint of inability to concentrate in the presence of rather minor background noises. The distractor to which he was most sensitized was the sound of an ambulance siren, even though there was no traumatic experience in his memory associated with an ambulance. Since our learning center is situated on a road that leads directly to the Medical Center hospital, we are subjected to a lot of siren sounds, so this student spend a lot of time throwing his work down in despair, whereas the other students remained unaffected by the distant sound.

Exploration of his self-statements revealed an interior dialogue in which he instructed himself that "there's been a terrible car wreck and somcone is all covered with blood." In order to change this gory response that was interfering with his study, it was necessary to do some cognitive restructuring and imaging and then change the interfering self-statement.

The student was asked to state all the situations he could think of where an ambulance might be called that didn't involve disastrous bleeding — such as a heart-attack, asphyxiation, childbirth, a bomb scare at the airport, etc., until he could detach somewhat the image of ambulance — bleeding — accident, and accept the model neutral self-statement. "I really don't know what the problem is." The next procedure consisted of having him image himself as a car accident victim lying at the side of the road waiting for medical attention, and then hearing the siren of an approaching ambulance. This process required a number of repetitions before he could move to the positive model statement, "Someone is getting help fast. I can go back to work."

Case No. 3: Female, age 26. As is true for many students, poor spelling becomes a great source of embarassment at college level — and yet the typical program of spelling improvement proves ineffective for some hard-core non-spellers faced with passing the rather extensive Subject A spelling test. No amount of word analysis or rule application, dictation practice, or Fernald-type tracing seemed to help this student achieve accurate recall of that Subject A word list. The insights from the inner speech technique led to the speculation that this student could not make the leap from information about spelling to application and needed a more carefully sequenced articulated model of procedure. The usual spelling process, "Look at the word, say the word, write the word," left too many gaps in the procedure for her. Model instruction were expanded as follows: "Look at the shape of the word — at verticals, at doubled letters. Look for

prefix, suffix, *i-e* combinations, ending changes, cluster pattern. Look for silent letters, irregular letters, low frequency letters. Say the word in syllables — with stress — louder on the problem sound. Write the word — press harder on the problem letter." As is consistent with the character of inner speech, the model instructions were given in the imperative — and the student rehearsed them in the imperative for their directive value. Initially, this was a somewhat tedious procedure, but it was shortened once the student had become habituated to the set.

OTHER APPLICATIONS

There are other processes which learning-disabled students fail to use effectively due to lack of articulation of all the steps in the sequence. Skimming, as classically taught, leaves out instructions regarding syntactic and semantic clues, transitional words, structural words, etc. Modeling this process both verbally and visually with a grease pencil and a transparency to illustrate the decision-making process, as well as the back-and-forth inspection that takes place during reading, has been helpful. This can be demonstrated to a group of students; however, students do need to be monitored individually for reviewing their rehearsal techniques.

Processes which are well understood and which require specific action responses are usually good candidates for this kind of treatment, such as editing lecture notes, analyzing essay test questions, certain arithmetic procedures, etc.

Close examination of our instructional programs, texts, and auto-tutorial materials reveal how often gaps in the sequence of instruction occur. As frustrating as our learning-disabled students are, if their need forces us to look carefully at our teaching sequences, they will have done us a great service.

With due respect to Benson Snyder (15), the truly "hidden curriculum" is this *gaposis* in instruction and is the source of much of the learning-disabled student's mystification. Their frustration is, in large measure, because they need to be told explicitly what to do to direct their behavior.

SUMMARY

The inner speech behavior modification technique has its origin in Vygotsky's theory of language development. Meichenbaum's training paradigm that grew out of this theory appears to be useful for working with specific behaviors in which there are either ineffective self-statements or lack of useful self-instructions. Because of great structure hunger, it seems especially useful for learning disabled students.

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COMPREHENSION AND MINORITY STUDENTS

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Of all the forces for change in higher education none seems more dramatic than the effects generated by the "open door" movement of the 70's. The most immediate was a change in the image of students themselves which mirrored a new cultural diversity and the rise of minorities. With this movement came a student whose educational needs and learning styles completely differed from the comfortable composite we had formed of the old (8). College reading improvement programs (CRIP) into the 60's had been developed for a student who conformed to a stereotype on whom much research was based and for whose benefit it was designed to serve. In order to accomodate this new image, the traditional CRIP give way to the more forward-looking learning assistance concept with its new materials, programs, and emphasis on tutorial assistants and individualized learning. (3) The movement promised to have lasting effect on changing the sentinels of academic success, college reading improvement programs (4).

To many institutions in the Southwest, the Mexican American (Chicano) became one of the more visible of the new students in the reading center. To develop an effective program, it was essential to have information which described the Chicano's education characteristics, but with little empirical evidence available, the suitability of the traditional CRIP became circumspect. Studies had already proved that reading courses were effective that improved reading skills were attained with monotonous regularity; and that improved reading could be translated into higher measures of academic performance (1, 5, 9, 11). In examining the research, however, one could not help but make two observations: First, the sampled populations appeared heavily weighted in favor of a monolingual majority, a majority less visible in the 70's; and second, the sina quo non of reading was comprehension, a skill

in which there existed a relationship between one's language background and his ability to read effectively. (6, 12, 13) With the questionable utility of past research and contributing problems in linguistic backgrounds there developed a need for studies from which information could be obtained that would be useful in the implementation of reading programs attracting this particular student.

THE STUDY AND RATIONALE

To meet this need, the Reading Center at Eastern New Mexico University initiated a longitudinal study whose general purpose was to determine to what extent Chicano students evidenced comprehension characteristics that were unique to them as a group. Specifically, the study sought to determine if differences existed between Chicano and Non-Chicano students which might be reflected in tests yielding discreet measures of comprehension. Such a rationale was based on linguistic theory which generally postulated that vocabulary acquisition and comprehension in reading were skills determined by linguistic background (6, 12). Studies have demonstrated that assignment of meaning to words is related to language background (2), and that understanding of syntax may be a product of the same factor (10). However, an army of students has escaped research and there is little available which explains the extent to which language background influences particular types of comprehension at the adult level. Such information could prove useful to teachers and tutors in the development of programming of reading skills in the learning center.

POPULATION

The period of the study included those students enrolled during the 1969-1973 academic years. The population represented a simple ethic dichotomy — Chicano and Non-Chicano. There were 184 subjects selected of whom 69 were Chicano and 115 Non-Chicano. For inclusion in the Chicano group, subjects had to meet the following criteria: 1) Spanish surname, 2) come from home in which Spanish was spoken, 3) classified as bilingual either by speaking the language or able to understand it through listening. The means for determining these criteria were through random interviews, questionnaires, and information obtained from personal data sheets. It should be noted that for purposes of identifying Chicanos at ENMU, the U.S. Office of HEW accepts one critiria — Spanish surname. For inclusion in the Non-Chicano group, students had to be monolingual in English. In the latter group were the White Anglo Americans (92%), Black Americans (6%), and Native Americans (2%).

INSTRUMENTS OF MEASURE

Three types of reading skills were identified for measuring comprehension

— factual recall, main idea, and inference. The *Davis Reading Test Form 1A* was used as it is an instrument which measures five types of comprehension, three of which were selected for measurement. This test was administered to the subjects of the study at the beginning of instruction and is an 80-item test from which two scores are derived; 1-40 measuring Level of Comprehension and 1-80 Speed of Comprehension. Through an item analysis provided by the publishers, thirty items of the Level of Comprehension were selected which included factual recall, 6 items; central thought, 11 items; and inference, 13 items. The remaining 10 items were omitted because it was felt they would not contribute to knowledge essential in this phase of the study. Scores were tabulated from each student's answer sheet so that four measures would be obtained — one for each type of comprehension in addition to a total score.

PROCEDURE

The general purpose of the study was to determine if an ethnic minority (Chicano) evidenced reading characteristics that were unique to them as a group. A subordinate purpose was to determine the distribution of the two populations as it was felt this would yield useful information. Since this was a descriptive study, it was not necessary to formulate hypotheses but rather to formulate two general questions in which statistical formulas could be applied in describing the characteristics observed. Question one dealt with determining the distribution of populations: 1) between two ethnic groups, and 2) within each ethnic group. For this procedure a chi square statistic was used. Question two dealt with determining differences between two ethnic populations and their subgroups in four measures of comprehension. For this general question a procedure based on incidental sampling was employed., (7) It is described as appropriating samples taken from a population because they are the ones most available. Such a procedure does not require assumptions to be made when observing particular behaviors within a population. In order to treat the second question, it was necessary to eliminate the effects populations of differing size would have on statistical measures when using raw data. To do this, all scores were converted to proportions and applied to *z* ratios. The .01 significance level was selected as the critical value of acceptance in all statistical procedures.

Prior to the application of the statistical treatment, it was necessary to form trichotomies in each of the two populations compared. This enabled the investigator to measure differences between and within the two ethnic groups according to discreet subgroups. It was felt the study would be more meaningful if it revealed which of the subgroups was contributing inordinate weight to variations that might appear in the data. Three ranges of raw scores were identified for the trichotomy and students assigned to categories according to their total raw scores on the Level of Comprehension Test. The ranges were 0-14, 15-20, and 21-40. These ranges corresponded to those used for sectioning students at the beginning of their enrollment in the CRIP. The three categories were labeled Poor, Average, and Good Readers. Assignment

of the 115 Non-Chicano and 69 Chicano subjects resulted in the following groupings: Chicano — Poor, 33; Average, 23; Good, 13. Non-Chicano — Poor, 27; Average, 41; Good, 47.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Question one asked if there were significant differences in the distribution of the population size between and within the two ethnic groups. This question required two separate tabulations: First, a tabulation for differences between the two ethnic groups and each pair of sub-groups; and second, a tabulation for differences within each of the two ethnic populations. With a chi square of 6.635 (1 df) required when comparing differences between populations, the following terms were derived.

Table 1
DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BETWEEN ETHNIC GROUPS

Chicano	N	Non-Chicano	N	Chi Square
Total	69	Total	115	11.50*
Poor	33	Poor	27	.60
Average	23	Average	41	5.06
Good	13	Good	47	9.93*

The second part of the first question determined the distribution of the populations within each ethnic group. With a chi square of 9.21 (2 df) required, the following terms were derived.

Table 2
DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION WITHIN ETHNIC GROUPS

Chicano N=69	Non-Chicano N=115
Poor (n=33)	Poor (n=27)
Average (n=23)	Average (n=41)
Good (n=13)	Good (n=47)
Chi Square=5.796	Chi Square=3.662

Question two asked if there were significant differences in four measures of comprehension between two major ethnic populations and their respective subgroups. The four measures of comprehension were total reading, factual recall, central thought, and inference. With a value of 2.58 critical at the .01 level in a two-tail test, the following z ratios are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
RATIOS OF DIFFERENCES IN READING COMPREHENSION BETWEEN ETHNIC GROUPS

Total	69	115			
Total Reading			.498	.399	7.122*
Factual Recall			.565	.440	4.006*
Central Thought			.443	.379	2.796*
Inference			.514	.396	5.566*
Good	13	47			
Total Reading			.621	.541	2.888*
Factual Recall			.688	.679	.155
Central Thought			.536	.476	1.265
Inference			.661	.533	3.012*
Average	23	41			
Total Reading			.454	.455	.046
Factual Recall			.536	.514	.415
Central Thought			.401	.399	.051
Inference			.462	.475	.361
Poor	33	27			
Total Reading			.351	.303	2.296
Factual Recall			.395	.293	2.040
Central Thought			.343	.328	.454
Inference			.336	.287	1.484

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the study has been to investigate the reading characteristics of two ethnic groups with a view to determining if differences would appear in specific measures of comprehension. Presumably any differences evidenced would be related to difficulties adult ESL students encounter in reading passages for the purpose of problem solving. Too, it was presumed that in measuring students of the same linguistic origin, that specific differences would appear consistently in each of the Chicano subgroups. Comparisons were made first in the distribution of the two populations. The data suggest an inordinate number of Chicanos who are poor readers when paired with Non-Chicanos. This was expected. However, in comparing the distribution within subgroups, Chicanos evidence the same relative balance as do Non-Chicanos. There is a tendency for Chicanos to have a smaller proportion

of their group who are good readers and a greater number who are poor, but this is not statistically significant.

This study did not reveal any comprehension characteristics that were unique to Chicanos as a group. Their pattern of problem solving is similar to Non-Chicanos of this sample. If linguistic background influences specific types of comprehension or problem solving, it was not reflected in this phase of the study. What may be concluded is what already has been observed: As a global generalization, Chicanos are poorer readers than Non-Chicanos with differences greatest in measures of inferential reasoning. Implications for teachers suggest that skills designed to promote comprehension for Chicanos should be no different than those for Non-Chicanos.

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TEACHING CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT THROUGH A MULTI-CULTURAL LITERARY PERSPECTIVE

D. Pauline Rindone
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For the past several years, universities have begun to worry about how to deal with the phenomena of low ACT (American College Test) and SAT (Scholastic Achievement Test) scores for entering college freshmen. Many students who are now entering colleges and universities are being placed in remedial programs where reading and language skills are the core curriculum. However, there seems to be little indication that new techniques are being developed or utilized in these programs to deal with individual learning styles nor is the methodology being geared to develop the thinking ability of students.

Bartolome (1), Guszak (5), and Smith (9) have conducted research on teacher expectations in terms of what they want students to learn. They found that many teachers use only simple recall questions as a means of teaching and evaluating student performance. It is obvious that more emphasis is being placed on content methodology than on process methodology. As a result, students have not developed their ability to use such skills as translation, conjecture, interpretation and application which are needed in the higher levels of learning, i.e., analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Research literature indicates that students must be taught how to learn concepts and that more time should be spent in teaching them the organization of the subject matter to be learned, along with principles for securing and utilizing information (Divesta, *et. al.*, (2), Ellis (3), Guthrie (4), Guthrie and Bladwin (5), Klausmeier (8)). Furthermore, if students are helped to understand rather than memorize the procedures and/or concepts being taught, the chances for retention and transfer to new tasks will be much greater. Smith (9) states that children can master individual concepts if given sufficient opportunity to employ their innate learning capabilities. This theory may be

applicable in the development of new methodology when dealing with students in remedial programs who have not been given ample opportunity to employ their innate learning capabilities; that is, when instruction takes place at the recall level, students are not required to apply the higher levels of cognition in relationship to their experiential background in order to arrive at operational definitions of a given concept.

Concept development and reading must go hand in hand because reading is the basic core of all other learning. It is also essential that reading become a meaningful learning experience because according to Zintz (11), it is through reading that one develops greater understanding, insight, and awareness of one's self and others in the world. In order to achieve this task and to give students the kind of education which Ellis (8) speaks of as being one of the main objectives of education, i.e., "... the teaching of basic concepts which are essential for more complex behaviors such as learnig the principles, problem solving, and symbolic activities such as thinking," (7:137) one must gear reading instruction to the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy.

Henry (7) outlines one method of teaching reading comprehension through the development of concepts. The process involves analyzing and synthesizing skills in the reading of literature rather than emphasizing the analysis of single selections, as has been the practice in the teaching of literature. She suggests using a common theme inherent in all the literary materials selected for the course of study. The main objective is to help students discover (analysis) and create an original structure (synthesis) based on the readings and one's own previous experience.

Many students entering remedial programs have not yet developed their cognition ability past Klausmeier's (8) concrete and identity levels of concept attainment and are, therefore, unable to deal with the demands of college level courses where they must function at the abstract or formal level. In light of the research on concept development, we have utilized Henry's model as the basis for a simpler model (Figure 1) which demonstrates how analyzing and synthesizing skills can be further developed and understood by freshmen college students by having them consciously apply these skills in their reading and writing assignments. In addition, the students must learn to relate the readings to their own experiences and other readings.

We are mainly concerned with helping a student extend his/her definition of a given concept by requiring him/her to find the commonalities inherent in each selection through the process of analysis and then combining those relationships to form a structure (synthesis). In an effort to facilitate the concept learning process and utilize the student's experiences and cultural backgrounds, the universal concept of "conflict" as seen in "Man Against Himself" and "Man Against Society" was used as the central theme throughout the course. Materials were chosen for their treatment of this theme and as representative of a given culture.

Because of the traditional expectations of freshmen literature classes, the Greek classics, i.e., *The Odyssey*, *Oedipus Rex*, and *Antigone* are set requirements at this university; however, these works in no way posed a problem of

Figure 1

* Religion should not be looked at as a central force but is equal in value to male-female and familial ties

being "relevant" because it gave students an opportunity to relate the concept to the Greek culture as well as present society. It also gave them a broader perspective and understanding of the universal concept of conflict as it has existed throughout the continuum of time and space regardless of cultural background.

In addition to the classics and five short stories, ethnic novels were used in the class to provide the students with a wide spectrum of cultural diversity by which they could compare the established classics with the current literature in an attempt to help students realize that universal concepts of conflict such as religious, familial, and value conflict exist in all cultures and recur as themes in literature. The Chicano novel, *Bless Me, Ultima* by Rudy Anaya, was used primarily because the majority of our students are Chicanos. In this novel the conflict Antonio experiences with his family as he is growing up can be compared with the conflict of Asher in *My Name is Asher Lev* by Chiam Potok and Telamachus in *The Odyssey* and other characters in the short stories.

Each selection was discussed and analyzed in terms of conflict and how the author dealt with conflict in terms of the character. After the students verbally analyzed each selection, they were given a written assignment to express their own interpretation and analysis of the selection. This helped them organize their ideas in order to better express their feelings, and in this way, writing skills were taught indirectly. To ascertain that the students were able to generalize to other positive instances of the concept, they were asked to generalize to other positive instances of the concept, and they were asked to give examples of the same instance utilizing their own experiences and draw a connection between the two. For example, in *Bless Me, Ultima* and *My Name is Asher Lev*, the main characters were torn between family expectation and their own personal desires. If the students' chose to write on this type of struggle, they should be able to relate this struggle to their experiences (vicarious or real) in terms of cultural background.

Because of the extensive emphasis placed on analysis and the utilization of a one-theme approach which reinforced the concept and gave the students many examples of conflict in literature, the students were better equipped to combine all the materials and arrive at their own synthesis of the meaning of conflict.

Although many students felt that they could not put such a final synthesis paper together, over half of the class was able to do so. Many of the students came in to discuss their ideas. For many, it was just the assurance of the instructors that they had the ability to do such a paper. Many had also stated that they had never done this in any of their high school classes. After examining the final essay, it has become evident that students cannot be expected to deal with or internalize concepts when the methods of instruction are based on content methodology, but they can accomplish such a task when process methodology is used.

This paper is based on a preliminary study which was conducted in order to develop a theoretical framework that may prove to be applicable in other

colleges and universities that are interested in facilitating the learning abilities of their remedial students by the teaching of concept development through a multi-cultural literary perspective.

We are currently conducting empirical research in this area at the post-secondary level.

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THE METRONOME SPELLING SYSTEM

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Despite seemingly endless variation and innovation in spelling teaching methods, poor spelling still plagues far too many community college students. While spelling texts have been condemned as inappropriate for teaching spelling (2,3), innovators have yet to develop a truly viable alternative.

English, with half its words having silent letters, one third having more than one pronunciation, and one sixth having doubled letters (1), perhaps its very nature negates a solution. Because English borrows from so many languages and is filled with so many inconsistencies, spelling rules practically defy formulation since there are so many exceptions to each rule.

Since the "rules approach" does not seem a viable way to teach English spelling, educators have shifted emphasis to the primacy of sensory modalities. The visual modality was the first to receive attention, the rationale being that the student must be able to see the word in his head before he can spell it. The visual approach also contains a spatial dimension since letters must be organized in an accurate, accepted spatial order.

The next modality to be emphasized was the auditory. Linguistic methods, relying heavily on the auditory, stress the learning of phonemes and their translation into appropriate graphemes. These methods conceive of spelling as "the process of encoding, of selecting appropriate graphemes to represent the phonemes in a word, and of writing these graphemes in the same order in which they are articulated." (5)

A third school of thought views spelling as a multisensory phenomenon. Fernald (3) advocates that the most efficient learning employs the visual, auditory, and kinesthetic modalities simultaneously. Hatchett and Hughes

(4) suggest that children learn to form visual, auditory, and kinesthetic images of words. Taschow's visual-auditory-kinesthetic spelling technique (6) advocates that a multisensory approach can be used successfully by college students. Thus, these authors believe that spelling should involve an interplay of all three modes.

Ray Barsch (1), however, takes the multisensory method and adds a fourth dimension: rhythm or cadence. While Barsch believes that spelling involves the entire body in the look and feel of a word, he emphasizes visualization which synthesizes and integrates the learning from the other sensory modalities. Furthermore, he believes that rhythm or cadence can be combined with a multisensory spelling approach to produce the most efficient spelling system possible. Barsch's Visual Impress Method seeks to impress a serial ordering of letters — kinesthecized visualizations — through the means of temporal pacing. The goal is

> to impress the serial ordering of letters into visualized form for the student. Temporal pacing is a crucial component of spelling success. The competent speller follows a letter by letter pace with no mid-word hesitation or pauses. In writing, the execution of letters should flow rhythmically. In voicing of letters, a verbal cadence is desirable. Not only is the serial ordering important but also the rate at which the ordering is enacted . . . The temporal pacing drives the visual fixations forward . . . The emphasis upon cadence is intended to avoid pauses and hesitations which often occur when the speller is uncertain of particular letter combinations. Poor spellers invariably are deficient in temporal pacing. They falter, stumble, halt, and struggle much to the detriment of their writing. (1)

The Visual Impress Method, therefore, relies on temporal pacing to insure a rhythmically smooth sequence of letters — in oral, visual, and written presentations. Consequently, we sought to determine if this method might be the magical cure our poor spellers so desperately needed.

HOW THE METRONOME SYSTEM WORKS

The Metronome Spelling System stresses the use of all sensory modalities, including temporal pacing as well as short, frequent practice periods. Students studied up to four sets of five words each for five consecutive days. Each group of words was listed in a column. Students then called out the letters of each word to the slow beat of the metronome (80 beats per minute). Without interruption, they moved from letter to letter and word to word down the column. After the list was repeated three times, the pace of the metronome was increased to 100 beats per minute and the list was repeated three more times. Finally, the metronome speed was again increased, to 120 beats per minute, and the process repeated a third time. This entire procedure was repeated for five consecutive days. The average student normally spent

approximately one half hour practicing daily. Thus the formula for the Metronome Spelling System is

3 x 3 x 5

three times at
three different speeds for
five consecutive days

We suggested that students study no more than ten words at one sitting. If they were trying to learn more than ten words, we recommended that they practice during two different parts of the day (e.g., morning and evening). Also, as students spelled aloud we asked them to point to the letters with their finger or pencil.

The metronome system, thus, has not only the advantage of combining a multisensory approach with temporal pacing but also utilizes the well-proven learning techniques of repetition and distributed practice.

METHOD

Before any student was assigned to the metronome system, we conducted a personal interview to determine what other spelling systems the student had previously tried. We assigned the metronome system only when traditional methods had failed. We then administered a pretest of 200 commonly misspelled words to each student. Next, the students listened to an introductory tape explaining the metronome system as well as another tape familiarizing them with basic sounds (vowels, consonants, blends, etc.). After students completed the introductory material, we held a second individual conference to verify that they understood how the system worked. The 200-word pretest was divided into ten different twenty word groups, each group to be studied for one week. Students studied only words they had spelled incorrectly or had correctly spelled by guessing on the pretest. Each Friday students tested themselves and recorded their scores. After ten weeks the students were post-tested on the 200 words they had studied. Students were then tested on 100 words they had not studied to determine if any transfer had occurred. These 100 words followed the same "rules" as many of the 200 on the first post-test.

RESULTS

Since our group was small and very heterogeneous in terms of their spelling ability, average increases are virtually meaningless. Nevertheless, increases on post-test scores were dramatic. Students who could spell between 20% to 50% correct on the pretest usually were able to spell 75% to 100% of the post-test words. In addition, there is some indication that a transfer occurs to the words that were not studied. On the average, students spelled 15.7% more words correctly on the second post-test than on the pretest. Unfortunately, this quantitative data fails to convey the qualitative changes

that occurred. The three case histories below attempt to document the nature of this qualitative change.

CASE HISTORIES

Wayne M., a nineteen-year-old science major, had been taught phonics in elementary school but was still a very poor speller. On the *Purdue Test of English* (Spelling), he scored at the fourth percentile. His pretest score for us was 42% correct. Wayne studied all five days, at least one half hour daily. As he spelled, he tried to keep a mental picture of the list in his head. Wayne's efforts were rewarded. His final post-test score was 93% correct. We retested Wayne one year after completing the program and he scored 82% corect.

Ruth C., a fifty-two-year-old black housewife, had only completed fifth grade. She had virtually no conception how to spell. She scored only one correct out of 200 on the pretest. She was usually able to write down only two or three letters of the words and often these had no relationship to the word itself. We tested her hearing and auditory discrimination and both were normal. She worked at the program very diligently. Her post-test score was 37% correct. What is especially impressive, however, is that most of the words she missed could at least be deciphered and usually were wrong by only one or two letters. She continued the program and received 53% correct after another ten weeks of study.

Brad S., a twenty-eight-year-old veteran, was working on his A.A. degree in respiratory therapy when he sought help. He was also working in the respiratory therapy department of a local hospital. Each week his respiratory therapy class required him to spell and define fifty complex medical terms. He was failing the class mainly due to his spelling atrocities; he usually scored two or three correct out of fifty. He had tried virtually every traditional spelling method with no success. We assigned him to the metronome system. Since he owned a metronome, he carried it with him everywhere. He practiced in every spare moment at home, work, and school, learning as many as fifty medical words per week. The result: forty-seven or forty-eight words correct each week.

STUDENT REACTION

Unfortunately the Metronome Spelling System has a number of serious drawbacks. The program is tedious and often produces both frustration due to its slow pace as well as occasional headaches. Normally it quickly dissipates the motivation of most students for these reasons. Plus many students are unable to practice for five consecutive days and become disillusioned when less practice is not rewarding. The boredom often becomes intolerable even for the most enthusiastic and motivated students. When students were exposed to both the metronome system and a programmed text, they overwhelmingly preferred the programmed text. Students indicated that their

learning was just as permanent and certainly more rapid with the programmed text than with the metronome system.

As the above case histories indicate, for those whom the metronome system is a long-sought spelling miracle; the advantages far outweigh the disadvantages. And even those most critical of the metronome system find it extremely helpful in learning those words they cannot learn any other way.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Some tightly-controlled research is certainly needed to determine whether the effects of the metronome system are real or due to some other variable. It may be that studying the twenty words by any method for five days, a half hour daily, may produce such results. Also, research enabling us to identify which students would benefit from the program would also be desirable.

Until that definitive research occurs, however, we cannot overlook the potential this system has for helping poor spellers like Wayne, Ruth, and Brad. Furthermore, the metronome system seems to be a viable means for both good and bad spellers to master those unconquerable spelling demons we all occasionally encounter. Thus, we recommend the metronome system primarily as a last resort in helping poor spellers whom traditional techniques have failed and as a remediation technique for average to good spellers who occasionally encounter words they can master in no other way.

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CLOZE IN THE CLASSROOM

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There are two kinds of thinking about the concept, "every teacher a teacher of reading." There is the creative thinking of the reading teacher (RT) that every teacher is a teacher of reading, and there is the creative thinking of the content area teacher (CAT) that the reading teacher is the teacher of reading. Which kind of thinking takes place depends upon the division of labor, and it depends upon whether one is an RT or a CAT.

If you accept as commonplace that a dichotomy in thinking does exist between RTs and CATs on the subject of reading, and that the well-entrenched hypotheses of the CATs has seniority on campus, it follows that it will be the task of RTs, newcomers on the scene, to look for ways of establishing mutually-supportive interaction. The purpose of this paper is to explore uses of the cloze, as a good mix of the theoretical and practical, as one way of interesting and involving CATs in reading and implementing the concept that every teacher is a teacher of reading.

THE CLOZE

If interest through involvement is important for new learning for CATs, then so too for RTs. A sample cloze with fifth word deletion is appended. Try to replace the fifty deleted words with those you think the author used when writing the text from which the sample was taken. Compare your completed cloze with the key that follows, score two points for each exact placement, with no penalty for misspellings. Your raw score will be equal to a percentage of one hundred.

INTERPRETING THE CLOZE SCORE

Wilson Taylor introduced the cloze in 1953 as a readability formula. Since then, the body of literature about the cloze has grown substantially, and includes research-based guidelines for interpreting scores. Bormuth (1) and Rankin (8) report a score of 40% or below demonstrates frustration level for the reader with that given piece of material, a score of 41% to 59% demonstrates instruction level, and a score of 60% or above demonstrates independent level.

Paradis, Tierney and Peterson (6) question the practice of using a single criterion for interpreting scores for all cloze passages. Cohen (2) reported finding significant differences in scores earned by good readers on passages taken from social science, natural science, and literature, with the social science material yielding the highest scores and the literature material yielding the lowest scores. Thelen (10) advocates screening scores below 40% to locate those students able to replace deletions with appropriate synonyms. Jefferson (5) reported that a distribution of scores for a class group can be expected to show good and average readers performing more closely together than average and poor readers.

Our experience over the past five years tends to substantiate the findings of Jefferson and Cohen, and to further suggest that those students requiring the least amount of time to satisfactorily complete a cloze can be expected to be the most able readers. The results of one field test in the fall of 1975 suggests that adding fifteen percent to scores earned on passages taken from traditional literature textbooks will improve the accuracy of predictions as to which students will be able to doggedly work their way through traditional literature material in a traditional classroom. Screening papers with scores below 40% has proved to be without merit for that part of our school population has not happened upon using appropriate synonyms to effect clozure. Screening scores above 90% has proved to be with merit for locating underemployed students.

CLOZE IN THE CLASSROOM

The cloze can be used as a means for (1) estimating student chance for success in the understanding of reading materials in the mode of presentation in a class, and (2) determining what a CAT can do to anticipate problems before they occur.

The cloze is quickly prepared, easily scored, and the material for it is as near as the course textbook. It will assess language correspondence between a given author and a target group, the subtle elements of style, background, interest, and purpose for reading for a learner at a given point in time, all without the leveling inherent in standardized reading tests and readability formulas. In short, it can help to determine which students in which classrooms can read which textbooks.

If the expectation of the CAT is that students effectively use the textbook

as an instructional tool, and cloze scores indicate few students in a classroom will be able to do so, the CAT will have convinced himself of the high readability level and doubtful value of that textbook for use with that class. If the cloze scores for most students in a classroom were to be at 90% or above, the CAT would have good cause for selecting an alternate and more demanding textbook or course curriculum. On the other hand, if most students scored within the instructional range, the door would be open to RTs to suggest ways CATs could improve student performance by using directed-reading assignments or other techniques such as structural overviews, vocabulary study, sequenced study questions, and advance organizers. The frustration range score offers the CAT a handy guide for making referrals to the RT, who could then isolate some areas of student need by noting which content fields referrals were coming from for which students.

Whole class groups usually represent sauce, goose and gander, or in the nomenclature of the field, orange birds, red birds, and turkeys (ORTs). The cloze offers the CAT a ready way for sorting out ORTs, and developing a sound base for varying textbooks, assigned readings and use of reference or supplementary materials.

The cloze also offers a possibility for diagnostic teaching. By using a variable to the nth word deletion, the CAT could mesure knowledge and understanding, as well as spelling competency, of technical and non-technical terms, grammar sequences, and other subtleties of language or prereading background of students.

An intriguing characteristic of the cloze task is that a number of responses have similar privileges of occurrence, requiring a two-step decision process in the search and retrieval necessary for replacing deleted words. By offering students the opportunity of working in small groups on a cloze task, the CAT could familiarize himself with the students' background, evaluate their cognitive styles in relation to his and those common to his specific content area. Assuming differences, the need for teaching the reading/reasoning processes applicable to that content area to avoid presumptive teaching would be apparent.

Another dimension of the cloze is its possibility for use as a pre- and post-test to assess the profitability of reading/study assignments and lecture effectiveness, and not coincidentally ion this way to function as a learning motivator. In one field test this past year, the use of check questions before reading in an Introduction to Business class followed by completion of a cloze exercise improved the skills of students in reading business material, and did serve as a study/reading motivator.

FINAL COMMENT

This paper ends where it began with a plea for some new directions in the continuing rhetoric about the concept of every teacher a teacher of reading. The use of the cloze is offered here as one possibility for skinning old cats.

TEACHING ROVER TO READ*

If your dog is ambitious and wants to be a success in life, then surely you can see the importance of teaching him to read. Don't be alarmed. It (1) not nearly as difficult (2) it may appear. But, (3) beginning the actual instructional (4) , you must first determine (5) your dog is disadvantaged, (6) if he is, you (7) have to modify your (8) .

For example, your dog (9) be dyslexic. One test (10) dyslexia is to have (11) run across the room. (12) his gait even? If (13) , he might encounter reading (14) . Another test is to (15) him follow a ham (16) with his eyes. If (17) has trouble following it, (18) eyes or other wise, he (19) be very dyslexic. Does (20) wag his tail from (21) to left or left (22) right? Dyslexic dogs usually (23) from right to left, (24) if you notice this (25) in your Rover, you (26) need to change the (27) : reading is done from (28) to right.

Perhaps Rover (29) mixed dominance. This is (30) form of dysle.. - in (31) the dog is neither (32) left-pawed nor right-pawed, but (33) both interchangeably. This trait (34) leads to reading problems. (35) way to test for (36) dominance is to have (37) dog sit, then respond (38) the command, "Shake." Is (39) consistent with his use (40) the right or left (41) ? Or does he offer (42) one and then the (43) ? Watch Rover when he (44) from a nap. Which (45) does he extend first? (46) he consistent? If still (47) doubt, there are other (48) (for male dogs) which (49) author will be happy (50) send upon request. Please include zip code.

1. is	14. problems	27. pattern	40. of
2. as	15. have	28. left	41. paw
3. before	16. bone	29. has	42. first
4. process	17. he	30. a	43. other
5. if	18. with	31. which	44. awakens
6. for	19. may	32. completely	45. paw
7. may	20. he	33. uses	46. Is
8. program	21. right	34. often	47. in
9. may	22. to	35. One	48. tests
10. for	23. wag	36. mixed	49. the
11. Rover	24. and	37. your	50. to
12. Is	25. trait	38. to	
13. not	26. may	39. he	

*Adapted from the essay "Teaching Rover to Read" by Brenna Lorenz, published in *Reading Newsreport*, Vol. IV, No. 4, February, 1970.

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INSTRUCTION IN STUDY SKILLS THROUGH SYSTEMATIC STIMULATION OF ACADEMIC EXPERIENCES

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One of the major problems besetting most college study skills programs is the concern that what is accomplished in the program may not be transferred by the students to their college classes. The fear that what occurs in the "laboratory" may not be representative of the "real world" of the college classroom is a legitimate fear.

Bruner (2) has stressed the importance of transfer of skills from the educational setting to other situations. Those skills that have been learned well will be *used*. Transfer can be better realized either when the teacher emphasizes applications of what is learned or when the class itself is structured so as to simulate events that would occur outside of class. It is this latter alternative that is the focus of this paper with reference to college study skills instruction.

THE APPROACH

It was the author's intent to devise a program, within a tutorial project context, which would accurately approximate the college classroom experience. Since it was an impossible task to get faculty members to donate their time for numerous sample lectures, etc., videotapes of various lectures and classroom activities were recorded. Special attention was given to variance in professional style along the dimensions of amount of content covered, digressions in covering material, student involvement in the learning process, and instructor approachability. The available tapes, therefore, contained a variety of instructional settings and activities.

Simulated reading assignments and quiz questions were then constructed for each video-taped segment. These materials were assembled in collaboration with the professors involved.

The next task was to develop criteria for evaluating such study skills as note taking, underlining in text, reading flexibility, use of time, test preparation, and test performance. It was decided, on the basis of administrative feasibility, to tie these skills in with the requirements of specific adjunct aids (2-20) so as to facilitate the referral process. Thus, students could be evaluated according to the criteria established in these adjunct aids and could then be referred to the specific materials that they needed.

THE PROGRAM

A student entering the simulation program for study skills improvement is required to attend and take notes at three videotape simulations. Questions regarding the material are fielded by subject matter tutors who are present at the sessions. He is then given reading assignments and is told that he has two to three days to study for a quiz over the class sessions and readings. The quizzes are taken and all notes and the readings, in addition to the quizzes, are collected.

All the student's materials are evaluated in terms of the specific skill areas of note taking, class-specific reading (underlining notes in texts), quiz preparation, and quiz performance. Attention is also given to the degree of convergence between each of these skills in terms of subject matter emphasized by the student. In this manner, a skill coordination profile as well as a specific skill profile can be generated.

Students are next conferred with and referred to specific materials and/or tutors. In those cases where the problem is simply a "missing link" in the skill chain, students are usually referred to materials and given some supervision in the use of these materials. When the problem is either a skill coordination problem or a combined specific skill-skill coordination problem, it is usually suggested that the student attend several "student savy" sessions in addition to using particular materials. These sessions, run by the author and several upperclassmen, attempt to analyze variables concerned with the selection of information to be studied. Particular emphasis is placed upon "trying to figure the professor out" — to learn to attend to cues which determine how important a particular topic is to the total course as conceived by the professor. From this orientation the student can begin to develop study strategies which provide structure for the specific study skills that the student has available in his repertoire.

When the student completes his compensatory training, he is required to demonstrate his mastery of what he has learned in a post-test situation. The post-test situation is nothing more than attending three new video-taped simulations and, once again, performing the tasks required. If a student does not demonstrate mastery, he is referred back to materials or sessions which will help him (usually with more personal supervision) and must go through post-test conditions again at a later date.

CONCLUSIONS

The program described in this paper has been found to be quite effective and workable at the University of Texas at Arlington. Initial feedback from instructors who have our simulation students in their classes is all positive. The students have shown improvement in both class involvement and in test performance. It should be noted that these effects have occurred over and above ethnic and racial differences between students who have completed the simulation program.

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REVOLUTIONIZING THE ATTITUDES OF ACADEMIA THROUGH A LEARNING SKILLS CENTER

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According to Funk and Wagnalls (4:2105), the definition of revolutionize is "to produce a revolution in; effect a radical or entire change in the character, government, affairs or ideas of an institution; to change fundamentally; reconstruct or rebuild on new lines." To speak of revolutionizing the attitudes of academia may seem presumptuous, for haven't the elitist attitudes of academia been in effect for decades, even centuries; i.e., only the fittest should survive? Unless one looks backward all the way to Socrates and the Socratic method, the view of university instruction and instructors has been less than enthusiastic about meeting the needs of students on an individual basis, or even with a humanistic attitude toward learning. As stated by Merchant (7), "The traditional process is based on two assumptions: (a) all students learn at the same rate, (b) all students learn about the same thing in the same way."

Educational research refutes this traditional assumption,and the American public school has adapted teaching methods which recognize inherent individual learning styles and alternative teaching techniques. Teacher-training institutions across the United States abound in courses, labs, modular units, and student and instructor-conducted research dealing with individual differences, needs, and learning styles. For the most part, these teacher education facilities which emphasize individualization are housed on the very campuses where individual learning styles or needs are ingored.

The university instructor, with some exceptions, mainly in the Colleges of Education, has never had training or even exposure to, instructional theories, cognitive learning styles, communication skills, or educational

methodology. The university professor sees himself or herself as teaching botany or contemporary Russian literature or data processing, whereas the public school counterpart insists he or she is a teacher of children.

A second assumption which must be included in the rationale for attempting to bring about a revolution in academic attitudes is the entrance of the New Learner to the university campus. The New Learner has been identified by Kersteins (6), as older, more practical, poorer, more disabled, and ethnically and linguistically different. Sullivan (10:6), alludes to the New Learner in her discussion of learning disabilities.

> Operationally, the concept of learning disabilities includes those educational factors within a student's learning style that impair rapid learning practices. This approach implies that such factors are not related to mental retardation, emotional disturbance, physical handicaps, visual or aural impairment, and that appropriate curricular and instructional responses can assist the learner in overcoming the disability.

She further says that the junior colleges and community colleges have included special kinds of instructional supports for the New Learner. "Universities and some state colleges, however, saw themselves as having no responsibility for serving the student with learning disabilities."

The need for progrms in reading and other skills necessary for college survival became apparent at most colleges and universities in the 1960's. It was at this time, when rapid changes occurred in the makeup of their student bodies, that the universities and colleges looked to the development of supplementary programs for the New Learner. Little has been written about what has been done in assisting the professor to become aware of instructional methods, technological advancements for the classroom, or alternative cognitive learning styles that would make his /her college courses more easily and interestingly digested.

At New Mexico State University the attempt to improve attitudes toward teaching and teaching techniques was begun several years ago with two programs:

1. The Southwest Regional Conference on the Improvement of Teaching, and
2. The President's Teaching Improvement Grant.

These are exciting, innovative attempts to bring about instructional change, but the effect has been minimal.

In August, 1975, New Mexico State University made a further, but long overdue, commitment to the New Learner. A learning assistance center and student referral service, called the University Drop-In Lab, was put into operation. The primary charge made to the new Coordinator of the UDIL was to assist any student enrolled on campus in improving learning skills or solving school-related problems through proper referral and follow-up. The UDIL was also created as a new academic department on campus to function in a supportive role to all academic departments and existing service departments. Two of the primary goals (there are 7) for the University Drop-In Lab (8:2) were:

1. Initiate specific individualized and group programs for identified traditional and nontraditional student groups in conjunction with those special programs' administrators and inustructors, and
2. Precipitate relevant and ongoing participatory planning, programming and facilitation of jointly-sponsored programs between the University Drop-In Lab and academic departments.

In order to achieve greater understanding of the UDIL and learning assistance which was such a new concept to New Mexico State University and, indeed, to much of New Mexico, the coordinator and two learning assistance counselors spent much time initially on outreach appointments. During the first semester of UDIL operation, these three met with the president and vice-presidents, six deans, sixteen department heads, thirty-one directors, and an assortment of professors and faculty groups for a total of ninety-seven initial visits. Also, during the Fall semester, fourteen cooperative outreach programs for improvement of student learning were initiated. (9)

According to Hultgren (5), one criterion for measuring institutional vitality is responsiveness or adaptability. The staff of the UDIL has found the academic community of New Mexico State University very responsive and supportive of its stated goals. Adaptability has begun but will be a slow, gradual process, involving one professor, one course, one program, or one department at a time since change must begin where change can be tolerated and welcomed. Change is more acceptable if the organization has been trained to accept change. It is with this understanding of the process of change that we present two of several cooperative, developmental programs, Communications Skills for the Native American and Seminars for Graduate Assistants, initiated by the UDIL to bring about realistic attitudes on the part of academia toward the New Learner and more humanistic concern for all learners.

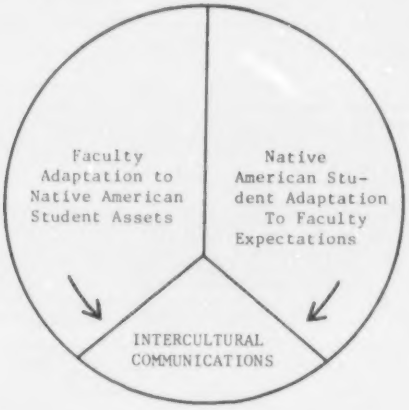
COMMUNICATIONS SKILLS FOR THE NATIVE AMERICAN STUDENT

University classrooms place the Native American student in the position of having to take the intiative in conveying an understanding of his or her values, learning style, and life style to the majority culture. We talk about campuses adapting to cognitive learning styles and using the learner as a data source, but rarely do we relate theoretical framework to the reality of the Native American. Instructors on campus need to be aware of the historical heritage, the linguistic background, and the variety of talents which the Native American brings to the classroom. Instructors need to understand how to use cultural differences to the benefit of the student and how to anticipate conflicts with mainstream educational procedures. Instructors need to understand that the demand for verbal skill in the English language in the campus environment is one of the variables which places the Native American at an obvious and continuing disadvantage.

The UDIL, in cooperation with the Native American Program, and at their

request, has initiated a program to help Native American students and their instructors bridge the linguistic gap between cultures. The first objective is to help Native American students adapt to the verbal demands of the university environment by providing experiences which foster the progressive development of the ability to communicate. These experiences are directly related to the classroom and to those social activities in which the students are presently involved. The second objective, the development and implementation of a program for faculty education, is intended to help instructors adapt to the particular needs of Native American students and utilize their special talents. In order for Native American students and their instructors to make a mutual adaptation, the student group sessions and the faculty education program were initiated simultaneously.

The relationship between these two programs parts is illustrated in the conceptual model which follows:


Faculty Adaptation to Native American Student Assets
Native American Student Adaptation To Faculty Expectations
INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIONS

Specific objectives concerning faculty education were discussed with an advisor from the Speech Department at New Mexico State University. It was decided that faculty and staff presentations and cultural awareness workshops would be ongoing elements of the program. The following aspects would be examined during the workshops and presentations:

1. what students participating in the program are doing to adapt,
2. why teachers need to adapt,
3. what talents the Native American brings to the classroom,
4. what alternatives the teacher can offer.

It was also agreed that the UDIL staff would meet with the instructors of students participating in the program at the student's request, discuss student problems with the instructor, and ask that alternatives be presented to the student.

In the initiation and implementation of the program, the role of the UDIL has been primarily to open communications at all levels. Communication

between cultures proved to be a lesser problem than communication between departments. Opening communications, however, continues to be the most challenging and most satisfying aspect of faculty education. Through this, the ultimate goal — that of opening up new possibilities for students — will eventually be realized.

SEMINARS FOR GRADUATE ASSISTANTS

Graduate assistants are an important part of academia. At most universities, G.A.'s are responsible for the teaching of many introductory courses. For example, at New Mexico State University there were 363 one hundred level and 413 two hundred level courses offered during the Fall semester of 1975. Graduate assistants participated in the teaching and grading of approximately 163 of those 776 courses. About seventy-four of the total number of lower level courses were taught solely by G.A.'s. Altogether, G.A.'s at New Mexico State University took part in some of the teaching of a total of 237, one-hundred and two-hundred level courses.

A learning center interested in revolutionizing the attitudes of the campus community with regard to learning styles of students must consider the attitudes of G.A.'s, as they have a unique relationship with undergraduates. As instructors or teaching assistants, these individuals are more often interested in direct contact with many undergraduates than are their supervising professors. Most importantly, they are students themselves, and quite likely have a tendency to identify closely with the needs of undergraduates. Furthermore, undergraduates have frequently expressed and demonstrated that they feel secure and comfortable with graduate assistants. For instance, instructors who are graduate assistants do not have the status-power orientation that professors quite often have. As a result of this, G.A.'s are able to interact effectively and efficiently with undergraduates. Clearly then, a learning assistance center concerned with building a heightened awareness of differences in the learning styles, must consider working with graduate assistants.

The UDIL staff, along with an interest group of graduate assistants, has organized a series of seminars designed to attract graduate assistants interested in improving their role within the University. Major emphasis has been placed upon sensitizing attitudes of G.A.'s toward different learning styles.

An interest group was formulated as a result of a "tutor training" workshop sponsored by Special Student Services on the New Mexico State University campus. The interest group felt the need to learn whether other G.A.'s were interested in participating in workshops and seminars on the following topics:

a. Referral services available for students' reading and study problems
b. Teaching techniques
c. Reaching students who need help but fail to seek it
d. Professor-Student relationships

e. Enhancing students' cultural awareness
f. Isolating students' problem areas
g. Teaching effective study skills
h. Organizing productive help sessions
i. Teaching aids and equipment available

A workshop was then designed to improve the working relationship between the faculty member and the graduate assistant in order to positively affect the communication between the "team" (graduate assistant and faculty member) and the students enrolled in a course.

Response to the questionnaire, the seminar, and the workshop was small when one considers the total number of G.A.'s who are employed on the campus of New Mexico State University. However, it is important to keep in mind that there are some G.A. concerned with the issues which have been presented in this paper. It is also necessary to emphasize that change is not a process which evolves easily or rapidly. Therefore, the learning assistance center interested in sensitizing the attitudes of G.A.'s must be persistent in their attempt, keeping in mind that graduate assistants are young in their profession, with attitudes which are subject to change.

Gene Kersteins (6:6), in his keynote address at the WCRA 8th Annual Conference, challenged learning skills facilitators to recognize the New Learner, look to factors for change, and more appropriately in the direction indicated in order to make the educational opportunities for these new learners meaningful. "It is we, the learning facilitators, more than those in other persuasions or disciplines, who are best equipped intellectually and emotionally to initiate the innovative programs that will serve the new learners." The University Drop-In Lab is a sincere attempt to do just that — revolutionize academic attitudes through improved communication between New Mexico State University instructor and student in order to make traditional goals accessible to all those who are capable of achieving them.

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ANOTHER LOOK AT BLACK DIALECT

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Black English had its beginnings in Africa and the New World in the early part of the sixteenth century. Its conception was the direct result of linguistic contact between West African languages and English for purposes of trade. Pidginization and later creolization occurred as natural linguistic outgrowths resulting in a regular syntax derived mainly from the so-called dominant language — English.

Blacks brought to the United States came primarily from Western Africa — according to some researchers — where there was also a marked French linguistic influence. Today, the purest forms of Black English in the New World survive in Jamaica, West Indies; Guyana, South America; and in the coastal areas of Georgia and South Carolina. In other areas, Black English has undergone more substantial changes due to social, economic, educational, and attitudinal changes.

Vestiges of African linguistic influences are seen most dramatically in syntax. Phonology was influenced most heavily by the Southern-white dialect, and lexicon was affected mostly by historical events that often posed restrictions on topics of conversation.

Black dialect is a legitimate mode of expression in that it follows a consistent set of linguistic rules, for the most part mutually intelligible with other varieties of the English language, and serves the needs of its speakers.

The following is an excerpt from the record *The Dialect of the Black American* put out by Western Electric (see cassette recording).

> In other countries, dialects are often used, accepted and enjoyed.
>
> ". . . and what did the lass do after that remark?"
>
> "She looks me direct in the eye and replies — and why should I be looking up your kilt when the bonnie fair man at the bar just brought me a Scotch. You're a cheat rat, that's

what you are. And she tosses her drink down like a . . . and she prances to yon bar."

"Oh, oh, I hope that shipment arrived from Marcus Brothers." "No sir, it didn't." "Give then a call Scotty, find out what's wrong." "Good ol' Marcus Brothers — late again."

These men slip back and forth from Scottish brogue to standard English. What's interesting is that among themselves they've spoken brogue, but when a fellow worker entered to discuss a business subject, they used standard English which was what was appropriate for that situation. Why, then, is Black dialect frowned upon?

"William, would you like another drink?"

"Yea, thank-you. Say, did you see the play last night?"

"I certainly did."

"What did you think of it?"

"I thought it was marvelous."

"You know it was rather good, I thought the acting was superb."

"Mmm charming."

"Mmm."

Can you imagine the reaction at a mixed party if the Black head of the History Department turned down a martini from his white hostess with: "If you hadda asked me / befor' / I might'a could, but I'm / toe / up now." It would cause a mild riot.

The middle class black must be careful of the language he is using or rather which language he is using. Only a few Black Americans have been able to operate freely within both cultures using both languages.

Such men as Martin Luther King often used features of the dialect.

"The eradication of slums is far more complex than integrating busses. This is where we are at he present time. And it is in this context that we must understand the so-called White Backlash. The White Backlash is merely a new name for an old phenomenon. Now you know some funny / thangs / are happening here in Alabama already. Have you heard any of these candidates talk about segregation. They-they-they tryin' to go over that issue now. They not even campaigning."

It was his means, and a very effective means, of speaking directly to the culture involved. On the streets of Black America, there is no choice. Life and its meanings only come alive with the dialect.

Any dialect is set apart by a unique set of features in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Black dialect has more of these features in common with standard English than it has differences. Some differences are as follows:

	BLACK DIALECT	STANDARD DIALECT
Syntax	1. Copula Verb	
	you right	*you are right*
	2. Morpheme marker for plural	
	fifty cents	*fifty cents*
	3. Morpheme marker for third person singular of verbs	
	he knows you	*he knows you*
	4. Morpheme marker for possessive	
	John cousin	*John's cousin*
	5. Number concord	
	She do	*She does*
Phonology		
	1. Final consonant clusters	
	/hep/	*help*
	/pass/	*past*
Lexicon		
	1. Word meaning	
	box = radio, box	*box = box*

READING

Black dialect comes in conflict with reading because reading materials are written primarily in standard English. Given the premise that an oral-aural facility in a linguistic system facilitates reading ability in that system, variations between Black dialect and standard dialect constitute linguistic interference.

In oral recitation, a Black dialect speaker may encounter a "pronunciation" interference when reading the sentence "He *passed* by the store" as "the *pass* by the store." Although comprehension may not be affected, the ability to read correctly orally may be seen as inadequate.

In silent or oral reading, a Black dialect speaker may encounter a "structural" interference when reading the sentence "We *have* heard it" because the Black dialect speaker characteristically uses "done" as a perfective auxiliary — "We *done* heard it." In such instances, comprehension may be affected.

Variations in words and meanings may also affect comprehension. Word-association tests show some differences in responses in black and white populations which might indicate differences in semantic structures (Entwisle, 1967). (1) "There was a *box* on the shelf" may be understood by the black dialect speaker as "There was a *radio* on the shelf." "*Sounds* could be

heard coming from the room" may be understood as "*Music* could be heard coming from the room."

The above are but a few examples. Variance between the two systems have implications for reading as a whole including word attack skills, context clues, reading rate, etc.

Reading, in turn, is influenced by other factors such as "functional" variances — "cultural" as opposted to "structural" — which are linguistic in nature.

These functional variances affect the affective domain of learning (interest motivation etc.) as well as the cognitive domain (recall of knowledge).

Since reading, especially as it refers to Black dialect speakers, is influenced by factors outside the realm of reading, linguistic teachers and educators must also stop outside of their fields and affect change in the social and attitudinal realms.

Our environment is shaped by societal structure — values, judgements, and attitudes. These in turn help shape self-concepts, which in turn help shape learning, which in turn help shape reading ability, which in turn help shape the degree of success which ultimately helps shape environment. A cyclical interaction is involved and concentrating on only one of these aspects, such as new approaches to teaching reading for Black dialect speakers, may prove ineffective.

One thing that must be kept in mind is that the term Black is being used here in a generic sense. When looking at blacks and Black-dialect speakers, we are looking at those who may or may not use Black dialect, those who may code-switch between the two dialects in question, all of whose dialects are further influenced by regional and social factors. How many people are we talking about? We are talking about 22,000,500 people — 11% of the United States population and the other 89% who may be directly or indirectly affected.

Any reading programs or changes that are instituted should only be done after careful investigations of the nature and degree of various linguistic and cultural factors.

In summary, when looking at Black dialect and reading, one may well keep the following in mind:

1. Be knowledgeable of the structure of Black dialect.
2. Investigate the linguistic/cultural make-up of the community.
3. Concentrate emphasis on the affective domain rather than the cognitive domain.
4. Be cognizant of the speakers environment — attitudes of others, societal barriers, etc.
5. Be willing to affect change or modification outside the narrow realm of reading in the wider realm of reading including components that affect it.

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ACCOUNTABILITY: AN OUTCOME EVALUATION OF THE EASTFIELD COLLEGE READING PROGRAM

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INTRODUCTION

When se speak of evaluation problems unique to teaching reading in a community college, we are saying the community college has teaching problems in reading which are exclusively its own and not shared with other types of collegiate institutions. This can be questioned. I believe that we have the same teaching problems in all institutions, but that in the community college we have a concentration of certain kinds of reading problems. This concentration stems from the open-door policy. At the community college, students of all grade point averages are admitted and few, if any, require entrance testing. Such is the case at Eastfield College. Because of the open door admission policy, entering freshmen may have a fifteen-year range in reading ability which compounds problems including that of meaningful evaluation.

EASTFIELD READING PROGRAM BRIEF

A detailed description of the Eastfield College Reading program is given by Swindling (10). However, for the purpose of this paper a brief summary of the reading courses used in the evaluation is necessary.

When a student enrolls in any reading course, he is given a diagnostic test: the Nelson-Denny Reading Test. From the raw data, which includes an analysis of errors committed, an instructional prescription is tailored to individual weaknesses. A contiguous diagnosis, complete with an analysis of each error, becomes the basis for ongoing prescriptive learing contrasts.

Individual skill needs determine each student's program within our struc-

ture, similar to the systems approach by Osen (8). Students are encouraged to recognize their own skill needs and to become competent self-learners.

GRADES AND WHAT THEY MEAN

Grades are earned in the reading courses by completing work units which indicate student accomplishment for specific task-oriented goals. For example, upon completion of an individualized learning contract, a student is awarded a unit of credit. Grades are assigned on the following scale: A - 16 work units completed; B - 15 work units completed; C - 14 work units completed. The grade of P indicates the student did not complete the minimum number of work units. The grade W indicates the student's voluntary withdrawal, or enforced drop by instructor due to absences. The grade of I is given to that student who indicates he will complete a given amount of work in the next semester. High grades in reading do not necessarily indicate that a student is prepared to undertake transfer work, nor that he is reading at a college level. Grades are used as systematic motivation.

EVALUATING THE PROGRESS OF EACH STUDENT

The success of any program can be ascertained from statistical evidence and subjective appraisal. Dubois (3) demonstrated that post-testing will reveal to what extent the students have grown in the skills of reading. Some tests use confidence bands. Raygor (9) pointed out that a real difference in performance exists: the student has made genuine reading growth. Correlation between reading comprehension and GPA is realiably reported by Corlett and Baich (2).

Student evaluations, properly conducted, can be of much assistance in determining the success of a reading program, according to Erickson (4). A self-report by the student, for example, can report reliably on changes of attitude, interest, and habits of approach. Clark and Ammons (1) have shown that student evaluations are most insightful and profitable if they reflect success with students in the areas of motivation, concentration, study skills, help with other courses, and enjoyment of reading.

The success of a reading program can also be determined by impact on GPA. This impact, however, is difficult to ascertain. Four-year colleges have continually reported research frustration in this area with respect to the many variables. But influence on GPA should not be the ultimate factor in determining the success of a program. It must be recognized that in a community college many students will never continue beyond the freshman year. If we have improved their ability to read, a significant contribution has been made.

METHOD ONE: PRE-POST TESTING — MOBILITY AND GAIN

Sixteen reading improvement sections totaling 265 students participated

in the study. These students met for 16 weeks for a total of 48 hours of instruction. The average educational level was 9th grade. The students were administered the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form A, as part of the pretesting. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form B, was given as part of the posttesting. The reliability for the reading scales is .81 (7). This reliability is well above the minimal standard of reliability coefficient of .50 set by Kelly (6). A t-test for related samples was used to analyze the difference in initial and final reading test scores of comprehension.

Table 1
CHANGE IN READING COMPREHENSION
NELSON-DENNY, FORM A AND B

N	= 265
Pretest Mean	= 29.57
Standard Deviation	= 12.20
Posttest Mean	= 40.27
Standard Deviation	= 10.35
Gain	= 10.70
df	= 65
t	= 11.4
significant at all levels	

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It is apparent from Table 1 that there was high upward mobility of students from pre-test to post-test. The mean gains for all reading courses were significant at all levels. Since there was no placement of students into the appropriate level reading course, pre-test scores could act as sequencing instruments for the reading courses. Students seeking reading courses must enroll in a course by self-selection and not diagnostic need. However, it can be stated that upward mobility is real; comprehension skills are taught and mastered; and gains are statistically significant. The question is, does this allow for student success in academic course performance?

METHOD TWO: READING GRADE VERSUS ACADEMIC GRADE

An attempt was made to describe the performance of former successful reading students in selected transfer level courses. Courses were selected and were compared in three distinct categories where it was judged that they have similar reading tasks: Category I — English 102; Category II — History

101, 102, and Government 201, 202; and Category III — Psycholgy 105 and Sociology 101.

At the end of the Spring of 1975 semester, students in each of the targeted transfer courses who had completed *any* reading course during one of the preceding three semesters with a grade of A, B, or C were identified through a computer.

The grade distribution for the students thus identified was compared with the grade distribution of *all* other students who took one of the target courses. Each group of students was separated into two groups: those successful in the target course and those who were not successful in the target course. Students with grades of A, B, or C were considered successful. Students with grades of D, F, I, P, or W were considered *not* successful. A chi square test for independence was performed in those cases where the expected frequencies were sufficiently large.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Students who successfully completed a course in reading performed as well in the target academic courses as the students who did not take a reading course. Each of the chi square scores obtained were not statistically significant. However, from Table 2 we can see that the success rate is higher for reading students and the non-success rate is lower for reading students in most cases. The reading students' parity in the academic course work is praiseworthy enough. It could be concluded that non-success rates in the academic courses would be much higher if no reading courses were taught. Do Nelson-Denny Reading Test scores predict success and non-success in the targeted academic courses?

METHOD THREE: READING COMPREHENSION TEST SCORE VERSUS ACADEMIC GRADE

An attempt was made to describe the performance of former successful reading students in selected transfer level courses. A successful reading student is a student who scored 38 or higher on the comprehension part of the Nelson-Denny posttest. This score indicates that the student's reading comprehension is on a competency level for understanding college texts.

Target courses selected were English 102, History 101 and 102, Government 201 and 202, Psychology 105, Sociology 101, and Humanities 101. Students in these courses who had completed any reading course with a 38 or higher raw score on the Nelson-Denny Comprehension post-test were compared as a group to those who had not taken a reading course.

At the end of the Spring 1975 semester, students in each of the targeted transfer courses who had completed any reading course during one of the preceding three semesters were identified. The grade distribution for the students thus identified was compared with the grade distribution of *all* students who took one of the target courses. Each group of students was

Table 2

COMPARISON OF GRADE DISTRIBUTIONS OF FORMER READING STUDENTS IN TARGET COURSES

CATEGORY I - ENGLISH 102
CATEGORY II - PSYCHOLOGY 105 AND SOCIOLOGY 101
CATEGORY III - HISTORY 101, 102 AND GOVERNMENT 201, 202

Group 1: Students who completed any Reading course with an A, B, or C grade

	A,B,C		D	F	P	I		W
Category I	76%		4%	2%	1%	0%		16%
Category II	62%		10%	5%	4%	1%		18%
Category III	75%		8.5%	2.5%	0%	0%		14%

Group 2: Students who took no Reading courses

	A,B,C		D	F	P	I		W
Category I	73%		3%	3%	0%	1%		20%
Category II	64%		5%	6%	4%	1%		20%
Category III	73%		4%	4%	.5%	1%		17.5%

separated into two groups: those successful in the target course and those who were not successful in the target course using the same criteria as before. A chi square test for independence was performed.

Table 3
CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR INDEPENDENCE

FORMER READING STUDENTS IN TARGET COURSES:
ENG 102, HST 101 & 102, GOV 201 & 202,
PSY 105, SOC 101, HUM 101

Group 1: Students completing any reading course with a reading comprehension score of thirty-eight or higher.

Group 2: Students who took no reading courses.

successful: Students with grades of A, B, or C in a target course.

unsuccessful: Students with grades of D, F, W, I, or P in a target course.

OBSERVED FREQUENCIES

	successful	unsuccessful	totals
Group 1	112	28	140
Group 2	7399	3156	10,555
Totals	7511	3184	10,695

EXPECTED FREQUENCIES

	successful	unsuccessful	totals
Group 1	98.32	41.68	140
Group 2	7412.68	3142.32	10,555
Totals	7511	3184	10,695

chi-square = 6.0105 df = 1
significant at .05 level

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Reading students who finished a reading course with a reading comprehension raw score of 38 or higher were successful in the target courses at a rate of 80% compared to a success rate of 70% for students who took no reading courses. The withdrawal rate for the former reading students was 12%. The withdrawal rate for the students who took no reading was 19%. In

Table 3, the distribution is presented as a two-by-two chi square test for independence. The results are statistically significant at the .05 level.

There is a trend indicating that a successful score on the comprehensive sub-test of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test is related to a higher rate of success in the target courses. It would appear that the Nelson-Denny Reading Test could be used as a predicator of success or, at least, provide a student with a realistic look at his learning potential if the instrument were used as an entrace assessment with appropriate counseling interface. The reading courses do provide a vehicle for comprehension skill building, thus allowing students a significantly higher success ratio in academics than students who did not take a reading course.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The overall intent of this study was to answer the question, how does one evaluate the effectiveness of a community college reading program? A variety of criteria was used in measuring outcomes of the Eastfield College Reading Program.

The first criterion was the mobility of reading students in percentile bands of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test and then computation of crude gain between pre-test and post-test of the comprehension subtest. The comprehension gain was found to be highly significant at .001 level.

The second criterion was a comparison of successful (grades of A, B, or C) reading students with all other students in targeted academic courses. It was found that there was no statistical significance between the grades earned in academic courses for successful reading students and those students who did not take a course in reading. However, the ratio of successful students was higher and the ratio of non-successful students was lower for the reading students.

The third criterion was academic performance in target courses compared to the comprehension subtest of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test of the successful reading student. A successful reading student was defined as a student who scored 38 or higher raw score. Statistical significance at the .05 level was found when using the comprehension score as a predictor.

Perhaps it is erroneous to conclude that outcomes of community college reading programs must be revealed in improved grades. I suggest that the real objective of such programs should be academic adjustment which might not be readily measured by a single reading test score or even by academic performance. Broadening our emphasis to include attitude change, self-concept, etc. should be amplified. Grades should be kept in perspective as one of the criteria of change after reading training.

Garfalo (5) commented that pure evaluation is difficult and the worth of a college reading program ". . . should be measured in the same way that a library's worth is determined: by the number of students using the program and by the breadth of resources made available to the college community. This method of measurement is far more useful than standardized test scores,

or the feelings of the instructor or the students." I concur.

In personalizing reading instruction at Eastfield Community College, we have found it most helpful to take students into partnership. From this experience, we have learned directly from our consumers the ways in which we have both assisted and failed them. This has been the most valuable part of the evaluation process.

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ELEMENTS OF SYNTAX IN TEACHING SPANISH READERS COMPREHENSION SKILLS IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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BACKGROUND

Human beings who are normally endowed learn to talk long before they begin to read and write. Children the world over grow up in a specific oral language environment which is familiar to them and which eventually furnishes the basis for possible formal training at a time determined by culture. In civilizations where the spoken sounds have been symbolized by written and/or painted representation in the form of phoneme-grapheme relationships, the art to read has become "the most striking and important artificial activity to which the human race has ever been molded." (4). Every language in the world involves the new skills of learning to recognize, give meaning to, and interpret the visual marks on a page. These marks have definite relationships to one another as well as to the elements of language they represent (5). In English the clock *runs*, en Espanol: el reloj anda (in Spanish the clock *walks*), in Deutsch: die Uhr geht (in German the clock *functions*) and en francais: la montre va (in French the clock *marches*). In English we say *Bob missed the bus* and in Spanish they say *the bus has left Bob*. While the end result appears to be the same in all language utterances, the understanding of the visual marks depends on the reader's past experiences, abilities to decode and encode, and to handle successfully the intricacies of the syntax and the semantic requirements inherent in the languages. The elements in syntax for Spanish and English are equally important. At the Eighth Annual Conference in Anaheim 1975 the writer (11) has reported on phonological aspects of consonants and voweis, on morphological aspects of noun and verb forms, and on syntactical aspects of word order as

Spanish speakers may pronounce, interpret, and act upon English words.

It is the intent of this paper to identify and illustrate in practical classroom applications lexical and functional words within basic sentence patterns as they are taught to Spanish readers for whom English is the second language. Also, this paper is directed to the understanding of alleviating the plight of the Spanish readers who bring to the English reading task non-English cultural beliefs, motivations, and aspirations as well as non-English ethnic and sociological past experiences. All of which are haphazardly mixed with their societal counterparts of American-Canadian-English slanted expectations and purposes. Furthermore, this paper aspires to draw specific attention to the claim that teachers who teach English as a second language to Spanish readers have elementary knowledge of the Spanish language system (7), of comparative linguistics, of phonemes that appear in the Spanish but not in the English language, of word order in sentences and of sentence patterns (12), and have a firm knowing of the structure of the English language (10).

MEANING OF MEANINGS

Meaning is said to be derived from background experiences of past and present. It is within the nature of the Spanish speakers that their varying but mainly non-English background experiences from which they bring meaning to the printed page add only to the conundrum of the meaning of meanings in reading the English text. The matrix of inner experiences out of which meaning emerges and unites with the new experiences generated by the encounter with the English language may complicate rather than facilitate Spanish-English transactions in reading. It is the Spanish reader who must either suppress, parallel, coordinate, or equalize the still predominant Spanish thought in order to gain effective access to and reproduction of the English language, English thought, and English experiences within himself (6). The unique process and the dynamic nature of the actual reading event is that ultimately the Spanish reader interprets the English text by acting on the text and the text acting on the reader. This dualism creates a situation in which each element conditions the other (8).

Examining some elements of syntax which the Spanish speaker will be exposed to when learning to read in English, both the reader's linguistic competence and conceptual universe in understanding or not understanding English utterances, must be considered. The syntactic structure tells which of the linguistic constituents of the sentence designates the particular conceptual situation to which the reader must turn for further information as is required to achieve interpretation. To pronounce and understand English utterances, the Spanish listener, speaker, and reader must be able to reconcile known single symbols, symbols in clusters making words, and words making sentences with the requirements of known conceptual situations (3). Recognizing that reading is for meaning and that lexical choices are made in construction of the total semantic meaning, it is suggested that teaching ELS students should begin with teaching sentence-meaning as its natural unit.

LEXICAL AND FUNCTIONAL ITEMS IN SENTENCE PATTERNS

In the sentence *The boy is playing with the ball* lexical as well as functional words convey the meaning in this utterance. *Boy, playing,* and *ball* are lexical word items that convey referential meaning. *The, is, with* and *the* are function words that convey grammatical relationship or structural meaning (1, 2). Lexical and function words are presented to the reader in a sequential order within the given sentence in which the function words remain static. Thus, the given order leads to a pattern of structural control which indicates that languages have systems. In addition, controlled structure content will accomplish much more for both the teachers teaching and the students learning the English language (7). In the sentence *The boy is playing with the ball* the following sentence pattern evolves: N1 + V (be) + N2 or NOUN plus VERB with TO BE plus NOUN which gives the following pattern of meaning structure: The_____ is_____ ing with the_____. This basic pattern allows for a variation of lexical substitutions. Lexical or referential meaning changes but not the structural or grammatical meaning. The function words remain constant while the lexical items change in accordance with the conceptual situation the ESL learner brings to the text and the text acts on him.

1. Substitute N1 (noun) for *boy*:
   The girl is playing with the ball.
   father
   mother
   child
2. Substitute N2 (noun) for *ball*:
   The boy is playing with the toy.
   dog.
   pencil.
   cat.
3. Substitute V (be) (verb) for *play*:
   The boy is walking with the ball.
   running
   jumping
   hopping
4. Substitute V (be) (verb) for *play* and N2 (noun) for *ball*:
   The boy is walking with the dog.
   reading teacher.
   learning father.
   speaking mother.

More complex structures of this basic pattern results when the ESL teacher introduces plural morphemes first for N1, then for N2 which necessitates changes of V (be) from *is* (singular) to *are* (plural).

5. Substitute plural for N1 (noun) *boy*, V (be) *is* and N2 (noun) *ball*:
The boys *are* playing with the balls.

When additional lexical items such as adjectives, adverbs and replacement words including pronouns are added to the given basic sentence pattern, the following complex structures result:

ADJ N1 (be) ADJ N2

6. The big boy is playing with the red ball.
Using Replacement Words (RW), the basic pattern changes to:
He (RW) is playing with the red ball. *He* replaces *The boy*.

7. Substitute Replacement Words including Pronouns for *The boy*:

John and Mary	are playing with the red ball.
They	
Both	
Two of them	
The two	
One of them	is playing with the red ball.
One of the two	

The basic pattern *The boy is playing with the red ball* may yet be manipulated by the ESL teacher from this pattern to another in the English language. The question, for example, is a transformation of the given sentence.

8. Substitute questions for the given sentence:
Is the boy playing with the ball? Are the boys playing with the balls? Is the big boy playing with the red ball? Is he playing with the red ball? Is one of the two boys playing with the red ball? These questions elicit affirmative or negative answers that are also transformations of the basic statement.

9. Substitute affirmative and negative answers to questions in No. 8:
Yes, the big boy is playing with the red ball. No, the big boy is not playing with the red ball. It will be noted that the negative statement can be answered either by using the long negative form: *No*, the boy *is not* or by using the short negtive form: *No*, the boy *isn't* playing with the ball.

The English monolinguist knows both forms which the bilingual student with the linguistic dominance in Spanish does not. Therefore, the unilingual teacher must exercise control by using one structure at a time. This means when the long negative form *No, . . . is not . . .* has been learned, the short negative form *No, . . . isn't* must be learned before the two forms can be mixed.

INTERPRETIVE PITFALLS

From the given basic sentence pattern N1 + V (be) + N2 a reduced controlled structure such as the pattern N + V (be) + ADJ or NOUN plus VERB with TO BE plus ADJECTIVE can be formed. However, interpretive confusions may arise.

In the English sentences:

The boy is good and *The boys are good*, the adjective *good* is at the end of the two utterances in its singular and plural setting. The ESL teacher should be aware that in Spanish there is noun-adjective agreement in gender and number. Thus, the linguistic dominated Spanish learner is acting on and reacting to the text in the Spanish language system

Muchacho esta bueno and *Muchachos estan buenos.*

This reflects masculine gender in noun and adjective in the singular and plural setting. The plural noun-adjective agreement may result in confusion with the English plural noun boys and the English singular adjective *good*. Perhaps, the non-English thinking and speaking learner may be heard reading and speaking and seen writing "goods", translating noun-adjective agreement in the plural from the dominant into the weaker language. Also, as it is known, difficulties arise in translating concepts from one language to another, particularly cognate words that do not carry the same connotations (9). Meanings go beyond literal translation of words from Spanish into English as in the following:

Spanish	**English Literal**	**English Idiom**
Hasta manana	Till tomorrow	I'll see you tomorrow
Tengo mucha prisa	I have much haste	I am in a hurry
Tengo hambre	I have hunger	I am hungry

Other interpretive problems may arise when perceiving the assignation of roles in lexical words which have a proliferation of potential functions. For example, the English word *fast* can be used in a variety of meanings without changing its grapheme-phoneme relationship. *Fast* can function as adjective in the sense of firm (fijo), quick (rapido), as adverb in the sense of quickly (de prisa), as verb *to fast* (ayunar) and as noun *the fast* (ayuno). The same lexical word *fast* can function in expressions such as *fast color* (color fijo), *fast friend* (amigo seguro) and *fast knot* (nudo apretado).

To what extent may the system of the native language interfere with the process of learning the new English language? How does the native speaker of one language system coordinate the other new language system? Does the new language system develop culturally and functionally separate but parallel to the other? When is a new language system really learned in order to be of day-to-day benefit? At what point of demonstration does the learner of a new language reach and maintain a linguistic balance in the two languages? When does the speaker of a native language begin to think in the new language? To what extent does the native language interfere in the thinking

of the new language? These and other questions are easily generated from the foregoing discussion implicit to and in the Spanish-English learning and understanding universe. What ultimately counts in being comfortably a "bilingual" is not how many words and phrases one can enumerate and parrot, but how effective one can think and how efficient, economical, and powerfully one can express this thinking in becoming master of the new language.

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INTEGRATING ADJUNCT READING AND STUDY CLASSES WITH THE CONTENT AREAS

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The staff of the Learning and Study Skills Center of the University of California at Riverside has organized a simple and effective program to insure unified presentation of study skills in a context which allows immediate use, habituation, and resultant grade improvement during the period of skills instruction. Close integration of study skills teachings with a particular content-area course provides: 1) maximum possibility for rapid improvement in grades, enabling the student to achieve success, 2) development of self-motivation, since skills taught are immediately relevant, 3) sustained impact through extended exposure to techniques with guided group practice on required assignments, 4) reduction in problems of transfer of learning, since learning of skills occurs on actual course material. However, while most presentation and discussion of skills is integrated with the content of the involved academic course, the goal of the adjunct class is transfer of skills to other course work through acceptance, internalization, and habituation of effective study strategies. Generally, courses in the social sciences lend themselves particularly to adjunct class coordination, although a biology adjunct class has been especially popular at UCR for several years.

IMPLEMENTATION OF ADJUNCT CLASSES

Since a large number of students needing developmental study skills are underclassmen, lower division courses are chosen first, then upper division

courses with large enrollments. In the initial stages of developmening an adjunct class program, suitable academic courses may be recommended by deans, department heads, or other faculty members, or individual faculty members in charge of a particularly desirable course may be approached by the LSSC staff. The program is described to the faculty member, with a focus on its possible ability to improve the quality of work he may receive. After the faculty member has agreed to allow coordination, the department head, the dean of the college, and the vice-chancellor of academic affairs are all notified of the intent to coordinate an adjunct class and are requested to co.ncur. Since most UCR faculty membrs have a number of responsibilities in the area of teaching, research, and service, the professor is not asked to devote his time to the program. Generally the LSSC staff member teaching his adjunct class will meet briefly every week with him to discuss the study class activities. During the process of contacting faculty, the study skills instructor may be confronted with three major reservations: 1) Many professors feel that the student should be successful on his own or accept his appropriate fate. To some extent this attitude must be accepted as a philosophical difference, but we feel that study skills training contributes to the exercise of a student's true abilities, rather than allowing him to be graded on the basis of poorly-developed study strategies. We also feel that the university has a responsibility to support those students it admits. Actually, many of those enrolli g in adjunct courses are already receiving adequate grades but wish to improve their grades or achieve success with less effort. 2) Some faculty are concerned that the LSSC staff is not very familiar with the particular academic content area. However, the adjunct class instructor does not necessarily need to be a subject matter specialist, for the study class does *not* focus on group tutorial teaching of the subject matter, but focuses on the teaching of reading and study strategies. While a subject-matter specialist can lend credibility to the program, frequently he cannot teach the needed study techniques without training. 3) Most professors emphasize that teaching assistants and the professor himself are available to provide subject matter tutoring, therefore eliminating the need for LSSC involvement. This argument, related to the previous one, may require an informal demonstration of the difference between tutoring and study skills training. The activities of the tutor and student include working through the text to discover the main ideas, discussing the content of those ideas, and, consequently, developing understanding of the content; whereas, the activities of the learning assistant and student also include working through the text, but to determine the principles useful in discovering the main ideas, discuss the method of discovery, and so develop understanding of the content. To some extent the distinction is one between focus on product and focus on process.

PROCEDURE

Once coordination is established, students are informed of the existence, function, and past evaluations of adjunct classes by the LSSC director during

their academic class session. Interested students submit schedule cards; the staff then selects two class hours a week which are convenient for the majority of students. After the adjunct course begins, a counselor attends most of the academic class sessions — minimally the first two weeks of the class and sessions prior to mid-term and final examinations. This insures an adequate assessment of demands on the students, skills necessary to meet these demands, teaching style of the professor, and level of difficulty of the reading material. It also insures that each study will be introduced at an appropriate time, e.g., the presentation of test-anxiety-reduction and test-taking strategies immediately prior to the first mid-term. The first class meetings focus the students' attention on clarification of course demands and on discovery of their own individual study problems, combining the revealed needs into a course outline tailored to the group's particular problems. Poor writers who are required to write a term paper will arrange sessions on research, organization and revision of term papers; good writers might decide to spend time on other areas.

The progression of the academic course, therefore, determines the activities of the adjunct class, through generalization, internatization, habituation, and transfer of learned study techniques are encouraged. A group deciding to focus on note-taking, efficient textbook reading, test-taking, and term paper organization will begin by developing time schedules to organize their study and class activities. The adjunct instructor takes notes according to a systematic strategy such as the Bartush Active Method (BAM), then provides the students with these notes as a model. After a full discussion the students practice the technique at the next class lecture. The adjunct group then compares and discusses the success of their note-taking with reference to a tape of the lecture. The self-questioning procedure encouraged by the BAM method is then developed and practiced. Again the adjunct instructor acts as a model, generating different types of questions from the lecture. His supplying of essay questions from the lectures demonstrates to the students that with practice they can derive relevant questions and use these questions for weekly and examination review.

As the quarter progresses, the adjunct instructor gradually gives more responsibility to the group for the development of their own study questions. The instructor, while teaching study strategies, and constantly fostering their use and transfer to other class material, is merely a facilitator as far as academic course content is concerned; he encourages the students to contribute actively to each other's learning, often having the students outline the material to each other in dyads and triads for more active student manipulation of content. However, before mid-term and final examinations, the adjunct instructor prepares a mock exam with the same format and conditions as the approaching test. It is used both for review and as a device for the teaching and practice of test-taking experiences. After the mid-terms, test questions are analyzed for style and content to better prepare the students for subsequent tests.

Skills which may be taught in conjunction with their actual occurrence in

assignments include: surveying and constructing an overview map, analyzing text material for comprehension, acquiring technical vocabulary through context and systematic study, analyzing related Greek and Latin roots, understanding diagrams and graphs, developing skills of self-questioning at the literal, interpretive, and integrative levels, organizing and writing term papers, developing student-teacher communication, expanding concentration and remembering techniques, strengthening test-taking strategies, and analyzing self-motivation and goals. Generally, techniques were based on strategies suggested by Adams (1970), Dechant (1973), Hanf (1971), Herber (1970), Joffee (1970), Manzo (1969), Maxwell (1970), Millman and Pauk (1969), Raygor and Wark (1970), and Voeks (1970), and Singer (1974).

Evaluation of the adjunct programs must include a number of subjective and objective factors. One indicator of effectiveness is the number of hours of student attendance. Since the programs are voluntary and non-credit, students who are not as favorable toward the course have probably dropped out involvement. Our adjunct classes generate far more hours of student attendance than traditional, individual study counseling and/or reading and study classes. Student class evaluations are also extremely helpful, though students who are not as favorable toward the course have probably dropped out before the end of the quarter. Another method of judging adjunct class effectiveness is to observe the effect on grades and class participation. Most grade comparison must be informal, since courses are composed of volunteers and the Center's mission does not permit it to refuse students service for purposes of evaluation. Students choosing to enroll in social science adjunct groups are generally found to achieve higher average grades than students who did not choose to enroll. Because of the large number of sign-ups for the one introductory biology adjunct class (140 students), the Center found itself unable to accommodate all the interested students. Some of these students who had also desired study skills help but could not immediately join a study class were used as a control group. The average test score of the adjunct group was 11% higher than the average score of the control group, or the difference between a "C" and a low "B." The professor teaching Chicano History felt that students involved in the adjunct class wrote superior essays and contributed more to class discussion than would be expected from comparison with previous classes. Complete evaluations, however, will also review student grades in other courses after their participation in adjunct study skills training which should reflect extent of habituation and independent transfer to new study demands. We feel that the adjunct class program will prove to be successful in these areas.

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REVELATIONS FROM STATEWIDE COLLEGE READING PROGRAM VISITATIONS

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During 1975, I examined approximately 100 California college catalogs to become acquainted with statewide reading programs and then visited 25 community colleges, enabling me a first-hand glance of one-fourth of the state's reading programs. With this background, I plan to sketch a hypothetical reading program, perhaps not revolutionary in nature, but rather a collage which evolves from how I envision the ideal in college in reading programs based on what I have seen during the past year. I hope to draw from unique ideas I have found as I have traveled in California. The idea for this particular focus for my presentation is the result of a question posed to me several days ago by Debby Hancock, chairperson of the Institute for Reading at California State University at Fullerton who said: "Now that you have examined a number of reading programs in California and have restructured your own, what would you like to see in a reading program if you could create it any way you wanted; in other words, what is your conception of an ideal college reading program?"

CURRENT NEEDS

The number of students coming to community colleges who need remedial assistance is sharply on the rise. 72% of instructors at the schools I visited expressed a need to revise their programs because of the changing student population in terms of their basic skills ability. When Canada College, in Redwood City, decided to establish literacy requirements this past year and administered the New Nelson-Denny (Form C) Reading Test as the screening device for incoming students, they discovered that almost 35% of the students tested read below the tenth grade level. The schoolwide average reading level

at Golden West College in Southern California tested five years ago was found to be around 10.2. James Baugh said last year it is now closer to eighth grade level. Thus, there are two things happening: 1) in some schools, programs need revision because they were designed for advanced readers and are now drawing developmental students, and 2) programs that were designed for developmental readers are now enrolling remedial students. As a result, many college reading programs in California are in a state of flux; at least 44% of the programs visited were undergoing some kind of revision.

TUTORS

Support in an ideal reading program needs to be present not only through means of administrative and faculty backing but through an entire support system to frame a reading program with a core of well-trained tutors as well as by the employment of well-qualified professionals. Royce Adams' tutorial system, at Santa Barbara City College, is certainly an admirable and enviable one — admirable because of its excellent management system and enviable because of the commitment the school has made financially to its program. Santa Barbara's tutorial program is allocated approximately $138,000 a year of which $75,000 is paid by the college itself. With these funds, tutorial provision can be extended to more than half the daytime enrollees of 6800 students. Tutors in the reading program at Santa Barbara are interviewed and selected by Royce Adams who stresses to applicants: "We don't hire tutors to be teachers but to be tutors." Intensive tutor training is done the Saturday before the new school term begins and the tutors are paid to learn. Additionally, experienced tutors aid in training new tutors. Tutors can and should be involved in some of the training process. Ideally, too, there ought to be courses available for training tutors.

My catalog studies revealed there were but four colleges which offer a course in the techniques of tutoring reading. I was able to visit two of these colleges: Golden West and San Joaquin Delta. At Golden West, Viola Schafer's course includes instruction on how children are taught to read; tutors are given six weeks' instruction and practice in phonics as well as ways of meeting individual needs in reading and administering informal tests. At San Joaquin Delta, June Dempsey's course offers much of the same training and also provides on-the-job training. Her tutors are required to read two textbooks on tutoring, keep a journal of tutoring sessions, and have "at least one entry per week covering diagnosis, instruction, practice and evaluation." Lectures include the nature and process of reading, diagnosis and diagnostic teaching, prescriptive techniques, English as a second language, and readiness training.

John Maloney, of Ohlone College, has written his own tutoring handbook and has found yet another way to train tutors: by means of videotapes. These tapes not only provide tutors with information regarding the material in Ohlone's reading center but also assist in instructing the tutors regarding the administration of informal tests. John provides his tutors with extensive

background information prior to their working with tutees and, like Royce Adams, he is able to pay tutors as they are being trained. John also has a skilled, full-time paraprofessional whose presence aids in his ability to offer a variety of well-organized mini-courses. These mini-course offerings would certainly be a part of an ideal program. His is just one of a number of programs where paraprofessionals, along with tutorial aides, are considered the spinal cord, or backbone, of a lab program. Other colleges where such paraprofessional assistance has become a vital asset to the reading program include Golden West, Rio Hondo, Sacramento City, San Joaquin Delta and Sierra College. Catalog perusals indicated that at least 35 colleges offer either mini-courses of 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 weeks' length, or variable units, in an effort to meet as many individual needs as possible. This broad variety of offerings is not to be overlooked in an ideal program. However, the more one individualizes, the better a program usually becomes but the more problems one has in terms of the logistics of running a well-organized reading center to a point where the coordinator often puts in 60-80 hours a week; thus, well-qualified paraprofessional assistants are unquestionably necessary.

FACILITIES

There were at least a half dozen schools I visited, portions of whose facilities I wanted to transport back to DeAnza. The ultimate facility would especially combine the concept of a free-flowing atmosphere that pervades the program at Fullerton and the eye-appealing decor of Contra Costa's modern lab. The architectural wonder of Modesto Junior College's reading and study skills lab would also influence planning an ideal facility. There, provision is made in the form of the most flexible structure imaginable. Three large classrooms can be readily converted into labs or smaller classrooms by means of sliding panels. In fact, the classroom/lab facility can take a variety of shapes because the only permanent walls are the brick ones enclosing the actual structure. Almost everything else is maneuverable and built for nearly total visual control. There are also four sound-proof rooms, about 10'x15', which each have 18 carrels. One room is used exclusively for three Language Masters which receive maximum benefit and use because of one reading instructor's endeavors for providing vocabulary cards for almost every content area there.

I would also want the comprehensiveness of the lab facility that exists at San Joaquin Delta. Among the many remarkable things there, one of a growing number of cluster colleges in California, is the fact that there are two complete lab facilities in two separate buildings, each replicating the other. Within these facilities, provision is made for a writing lab, ESL materials, and an extensive remedial and developmental reading program. There is a glass enclosed area for diagnosis, testing and small group activities. A separate classroom within the confines of the lab has been included.

A Learning Center's cooperative support of a reading program was also seen at Sacramento City College, L.A. Southwest, El Camino College and

L.A. Valley. Indeed, at L.A. Valley, some members of the reading staff donate their time to the center to provide instructor-guided instrumentation for independent study. This is another prerequisite for the ideal reading program. If one is to offer self-paced instruction, that program can be a viable one if ample instructor direction is provided rather than, as is the case in some places, of having students working totally on their own with programmed materials. The blending of instructor guidance with self-paced programs has been most adequately attained in the Learning Center at San Bernardino Valley which provides instructional sequences coordinated with classroom activities. Their resources include a dial retrieval system making it possible for 64 programs to be automatically available through individual student touch button listening posts in 40 carrels and for 100 learning carrels to be equipped with headsets to receive any one of more than 2000 tapes for reading-related programs in humanities, math, speech, music, drama, business, P.E., biology, etc. Since San Bernardino Valley Learning Center's leadership some ten years ago began developing interdisciplinary studies in reading, many California colleges have followed suit.

DIAGNOSIS

The first thing I would hope to do as students arrived at the ideal facility would be to provide adequate diagnosis of their reading problems. This may not seem like a revolutionary change, but one needs to consider that at each of 14 schools I visited whose catalog indicated extensive diagnosis was present, instructors remarked that no such in-depth diagnosis was actually available. Indeed, only at two schools — San Joaquin Delta and Fullerton College — were remedial reading problems actually diagnosed extensively. At no school could I find the kind of diagnosis that is now present in the restructured reading program we offer at DeAnza College for developmental readers.

COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION

At DeAnza. we have taken the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test, Level III, made our own item analysis, fed the results into a computer, and are able to offer students reading between the 8-11 grade levels a criterion-referenced program of diagnosis, prescription, and evaluation in a classroom/lab situation. This is the type of program I would want for every reading level: remedial, developmental, and advanced. From what I have seen to date, the computer age is here and very likely not only to stay, but eventually, perhaps to take over a great deal of what is done on college campuses in terms of management and instruction. Remedial reading and writing programs have been developed using computer-assisted instruction at L.A. Southwest and Orange Coast College. In fact, at Orange Coast, experimentation has begun in a program called "Gol mark" where a student can receive computer-assisted instruction at home on a television screen. At El Camino College,

computer records have been kept for the 28,000 students annually enrolled over the past ten years in order to study trends and make changes in program offerings. At DeAnza, we are considering installing dial-a-phone computer programs and also at DeAnza, faculty-development workshops have been conducted since January 1976 to provide computer language knowledge in order to utilize the two computer terminals available in the faculty reading room. At DeAnza each quarter, a computer printout is available which contains a summary statement for each course offering so that, in our reading sections, we know how many students complete which course and what grades were received. The capabilities of the computer have so impressed me that I cannot visualize an ideal reading program without one.

I realize that a number of things have not been covered : establishing a philosophy of reading, on-going evaluation, a program that is dynamic and flexible rather than so structured as to be rigid and inflexible, literacy requirements, a variety of course offerings from remedial to advanced; giving the student a letter grade or credit status, providing a clinic to diagnose any physical or psychological causes of reading disability, selecting the most qualified personnel in the area of reading instruction, developing staff and providing for released time for development of new materials as well as visitation of programs, providing a reading resource center for professional growth and finally, having well-motivated, eager learners.

You may ask why is it important to even consider an ideal program. It is only when we think of and articulate the impossible that it can become the improbable. From the improbable, with enough time, determination and vision, that improbable can become the probable.

TIME MAKES ANCIENT GOOD UNCOUTH

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An expanded generation of learners is taking advantage of the educational opportunities offered by post secondary education. This new generation is more diversified in age, ethnic background, advantages, academic training, and work experience than any previous generation of learners. To serve them demands a new generation of learning facilitators committed to diagnostic teaching which does not rely solely upon traditional testing or teaching materials.

We have been well served in the past by standardized tests which measure general reading ability and by prepared instructional materials which teach general reading skills. But, we can no longer administer the Nelson-Denny (3) or the Diagnostic Reading Test (1), find a student to be "low" in rate and vocabulary and plug him into the shadowscope (5) and Vocabulab III (4). Further, we must consider his need to survive in Psychology 100, Math 121, welding, licensed practical nursing or electromechanics.

Our new generation of learners is less patient, more goal oriented and demanding fulfillment of needs. A new generation of learning facilitators must know the reading and study skills demands of various content areas, must be able to assess the learner's ability to meet those demands and must provide learning activities that support the learner's skills. The balance of this paper offers some procedures learning facilitators might employ to meet these new duties.

To effectively determine the learner's ability to read and learn in each content area, the learning facilitator needs instruments which will evaluate all of the reading skills and study skills necessary for success in each content

area. Unlike the standardized tests, these instruments are responsive to the content area instructors' exact demands and input.

The reading assessment should include group and individual instruments based upon a readability analysis of the instructional material used in the content area. Specific procedures for the development of reading assessments have been detailed elsewhere (6).

The study skills assessment should be based upon those skills required by the instructional material and identified by instructors as being necessary for academic success. This requires a task analysis, tht is a task listing, task detailing and task validating, for each content area. An assessment instrument is then developed for each task. Specific procedures for developing a study skills assessment are developed below.

STEPS IN A TASK ANALYSIS

There are three steps in a task analysis: task listing, task detailing and task validation.

Step 1 — Task Listing

The enumeration of all tasks needed for learning in a content area. A task is a logically-related set of actions required for the completion of a learning objective, that is, what you have to do to be able to learn. For example, some tasks are:

- In an English class, one task that students might have to do is use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.
- In a social studies class, one task that students might have to do is read a globe.
- In almost any class, students might have to use an index.

When you do a task listing for a content area you must provide a more complete listing of tasks than given in the example. The beginning of a task listing for a science class might look like this:

A. Use the glossary in the science textbook to understand the meaning of a technical word.
B. Use the table of contents of a science textbook.
C. Use the index of a science textbook.
D. Understand the meaning of bar graphs used in science textbooks.

Step 2 — Task Detailing

The listing of the steps involved in each task in terms of what a person does when performing the task. In this step, there is a systematic breakdown of skills into smaller, more specific units. This is the key to task analysis. Here the instructor becomes aware of the skills and abilities prerequisite to successful learning.

For example, a task detailing of one task for a science class might look like this:

Task A — Use the glossary in the science textbook to understand the meaning of technical words.

1. Locate the glossary.
2. Locate the word.
3. Paraphrase the definition.

Step 3 — Task Validation

Determining that tasks are legitimate and needed for learning in a content area. To validate tasks you might:

A. *Consult with content area instructors.* Ask them to generate the task listing and task detailing with you. Also, ask them to help validate tasks you have listed and detailed.

B. *Use your expertise.* You represent an expert in reading and learning. Also, you probably have seen many problems students experience in various content areas.

C. *In-class validation.* Your listings should be compared to what students must do in the content area.

D. *Students' input.* Ask students what learning and reading skills were needed for their learning in the content area class. This might best be done after students have completed a course.

STUDY SKILLS INVENTORY

When you have listed, detailed and validated the tasks necessary for successful learning in a content area, then you are ready to develop an assessment package for each task listed. The total of all of these individual assessment packages is your study skills instrument for a content area.

For example, in our task listing above we identified "use the glossary in the science textbook to understand the meaning of technical words" as a task that might be necessary in a science class. Our detailing of that task included:

1. Locate the glossary.
2. Locate the word.
3. Paraphrase the definition.

For this task our assessment package might be like this:

Task A

1. Can the student locate the glossary?
   Question: On what page does the glossary begin?_____

Task A

2. Can the student locate a word in the glossary?
   Question: Locate the word *gene* in the glossary and copy the first four words of the definition in the space provided:

_____

Task A

3. Can the student paraphrase the definition?

Question: Here is a word and its definition from the glossary of your science textbook. Read the word, read the definition and, in the space provided, write in your own words, the scientific meaning of the word.

Symbiosis: a mutually dependent relationship in which two unlike organisms live together as a single organism.

_____

_____

_____

Further examples of task analysis appear in Williams, Kaman and Smith (7).

SUPPLEMENTING READING AND STUDY SKILLS

Among the supplementary services learning facilitators might make available are traditional activities such as peer tutoring, individual tutoring, group instruction and learning activity packets. The new assessment instruments should have identified the learner's specific content area learning need and allow for maximum effort from both the learner and learning facilitator.

A new generation of learners is trying to teach us new duties. They and time have made our traditional ways uncouth. When the new generation of learning facilitators can implement the philosophy of diagnostic teaching, then we will begin to meet the vast diversity of learning needs for an expanded generation of learners.

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TEMPLATES FOR VOCABULARY

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Remember the twenty -ation words (starvation, examination) or /t/ spelled -ed words (walked, stopped) or re-words (retake, revise) a week in elementary school. Sometimes there were weeks of potpourri words (behead, catapult, seize, deny, Pacific). Vygotsky's descriptions for congeries or heap and complexes best explain the words we memorized in elementary school. Vygotsky (6:59) defined a congeries of heap as ". . . consisting of disparate objects grouped together without any basis . . ." Thus, congeries was a potpourri week.

"In a complex, individual objects are united . . . not only by . . . subjective impressions but also by bonds actually existing between these objects" (6:61). The -ation, -re, etc. were the bonds existing between some of our spelling words.

EXISTING VOCABULARY BOOKS

What are college vocabulary books like? Most of them lack the sophistication of a complex. Their chapters and exercises have the characteristics of congeries or heaps. Zuckerman's (7) *Words Words Words* is a collection of heaps of words that have no bonds. Feinstein's (2) *Programmed College Vocabulary 3600* and Davis's (1) *Basic Vocabulary Skills* present words in complexes. Feinstein's book has four chapters with the bonds being parts of speech (adjectives, verbs, nouns and five chapters with subject and discipline bonds). "In a complex, the bonds between the components are *concrete and factual* rather than abstract and logical . . ." (6:61). Davis's book also has a discipline focus in the second part. The first four chapters like Feinstein's first two chapters present morphemes. Congeries best describe their presentation of morphemes.

A discipline focus is more appropriate than one on parts of speech. However, memorizing words associated with a discipline does not in itself lead to concept formation or clarification. The discipline focus could result in what Vygotsky (6:66) referred to as a pseudo-concept. The generalization formed to create a pseudo-concept, although phenotypically resembling a concept, is psychologically very different from a concept. Vygotsky gave the following explanation of how a pseudo-concept differs from a concept.

> "... For instance, when the sample is a yellow triangle and the child picks out all the triangles in the experimental materials, he could have been guided by the general idea or concept of triangle. Experimental analysis shows, however, that in reality the child is guided by the concrete, visible likeness and has formed only an associative complex limited to a certain kind of perceptual bond.

This type of response activates short-term memory which involves only the experience itself. No consolidation occurs. No template is built from coded sensory data for permanent storage. "Conceptualization of the structure and meaning of experience ..., is conductive to effective retrieval at a later time." (5:287). Foss (3:306) wrote, "... it seems that a pattern, template, schema, etc., is learned first, then behavior is produced to match the pattern." Vygotsky (6:110) explains, "Concepts do not lie in the child's mind like peas in a bag, without any bonds between them."

"... (To) be adequately characterized each concept must be placed within two continua — one that represents objective content and another that represents acts of thought apprehending content. Their intersection determines all the relationships of a given concept to others, its coordinate, superordinate, and subordinate concepts." (6:112-113).

Hinde (4:7-8) explains the limitations of concepts.

> Classifying is a basic human activity: our very perception of the world depends on our classifying the sensations we receive. Classification also forms the basis of all science, because to study natural phenomena it is necessary first to describe and classify them. But the pigeonholes we use are often artificial, and our dependence upon them may conceal the fact that they do not quite fit nature ... (One) of the first lessons to be learned is that most classifying systems, if pressed far enough, do not work. What we must do, therefore, is to use our categories as tools and not to dignify them as absolutes, bearing constantly in mind the sorts of distinctions for which they are useful and the nature of their limitations.

This author knows of no college vocabulary book with a format that challenges the capability of a post-puberty intellect. To meet the academic needs of the college students vocabulary books must have formats designed to challenge the post-puberty intellect. "The development of concepts, or word meanings, presupposes the development of many intellectual functions: de-

liberate attention, logical memory, abstraction, the ability to compare and to differentiate" (6:83). "If the environment presents no such tasks to the adolescent, makes no new demands on him, and does not stimulate his intellect, by providing a sequence of new goals, his thinking fails to reach the highest stages or reaches them with great delay" (6:58-59). Vocabulary study in college should focus on the process of concept formation in all its complexity. This process is a movement of thought within the pyramid of concepts, constantly alternating between two directions, from the particular to the general, and from the general to the particular (6:80).

Vocabulary study should explore the metaphorical relationships between concrete and abstract concepts in order to increase conceptual clarity for abstract concepts.

USE OF TEMPLATES

A student desiring to increase word meanings and conceptual clarity for the concept: *feelings* could refer to sections 853 (Feelings), 854 (Lack of Feelings), 855 (Excitement), and 856 (Inexcitability) in *Roget's International Thesaurus*. The following are two templates designed to assist students in developing precision in word meanings and conceptual clarity. For purposes of illustration, lets consider the concept: *feelings*. Please note that the first template requires the use of a dictionary as well as the thesaurus.

Template I

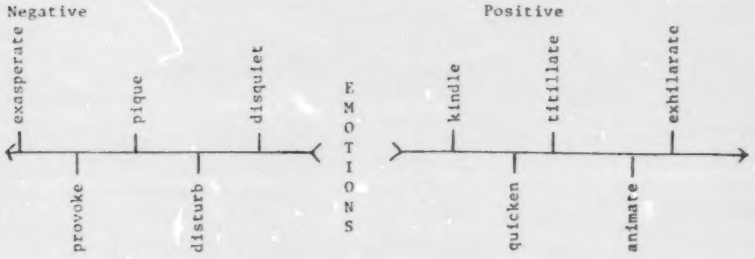
	Syllables				Morphemes			Concepts		
Feelings	Vowel	Vowel-Consonant-	Consonant-Vowel-	Consonant-Vowel-Consonant-	Prefix/es	Base Word/s	Suffix/es	Concrete	Abstract	Grammatical
apathy	ə	ap	thi			path	y	without feel		Noun (-y)
aplomb	ə			plom		plomb (plumb)		to, lead		
emotion			mo	shun	e	mo	tion	out	to move to stir up	Noun (tion)
exasperate		ig	pə	zas. rat	ex ex	asper asper	ate	out, from	to roughen	verb -ate
fervent			fur	vənt		ferv	ent		to glow to boil	adj -ent
sentiment			tə	sen ment		sent	ment	to feel	a state of condicion	-i-

The thesaurus helps the student to readily identify words used to express various degrees of precision and intensity for the concept being studied. The dictionary aids the student in both phonic and structural analysis. Phonic analysis for the most part is based upon syllables in the English language. As soon as the student understands there are only four basic types of syllables in oral language, he has the foundation necessary to discover how twenty-six graphemes represent the forty plus phonemes of English. Many students need this understanding before they can improve their spelling.

Structual analysis reveals to the student the metaphorical relationships between concrete and abstract concepts represented by words. It is the morphemes that hold the keys to this knowledge. For example, the word: *exasperate* has as a foundation the concrete concepts of *out* and *rough*. When a person is exasperated, the rough aspects of his personality emerge or come out. The suffix: -ate suggest the act or process of the revealing of these rough aspects. Thus, *-ate* is a grammatical morpheme which permits exasperate to be used as a verb in English syntax. Vocabulary books assume too much when they do not offer exercises in phonic and structural analysis.

Template II is a structure for critical thinking. It requires a student to consider how positive or how negative a particular word expresses a concept. Critical reading requires a close look at the author's choice of words. His choice can best be evaluated on a scale which includes synonyms and antonyms. The topography of a concept is the sum of the precision and intensity expressed by its synonyms and antonyms. Template II focuses on the topography of the concept: *feelings* or *emotions*.

Template II



Templates should not be used to force students into patterns of convergent thinking. They should be used to help students structure their thinking. They should provide students with the opportunities to discuss, to compare, to re-create with language the content of experience.

Templates are not designed to make concept formation or modification easy. They are designed to make concept formation or modification possible. Vygotsky (6:85) reminds us that ". . . concepts are not simply acquired by rote but evolve with the aid of strenuous mental activity. . ." "The result is a ceaseless struggle within the developing language between conceptual thought and. . .thinking complexes" (6:74) "It should be noted. . ., that even the normal adult, capable of forming and using concepts, does not consistently operate with concepts in his thinking. . .(T)he adult constantly shifts from conceptual to concrete, complexlike thinking. The transitional, pseudo-concept form of thought is not confined to child thinking; we too resort to it very often in our daily life." (6:75).

"The greatest difficulty of all is the application of a concept . . ., to new concrete situations that must be viewed in these abstract terms — a kind of transfer usually mastered only toward the end of the adolescent period. The transition from the abstract to the concrete proves just as arduous . . . as the earlier transition to the abstract." (6:80). Vocabulary study for the college student should be oriented toward his post-puberty intellect and not toward his pre-puberty intellect. The only good kind of instruction and study is that which marches ahead of what has alredy been learned and leads to what a student is capable of knowing.

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